SANGLI DISTRICT GAZETTEER

MAHARASHTRA STATE GAZETTEERS

सत्यमेव जयते

Government of Maharashtra

SANGLI DISTRICT

BOMBAY
DIRECTORATE OF GOVERNMENT PRINTING, STATIONERY
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GAZETTEER OF INDIA

MAHARASHTRA STATE GAZETTEERS

SANGLI DISTRICT

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PREFACE

THIS IS THE FIRST TIME THAT A SEPARATE GAZETTEER OF THE SANGLI DISTRICT HAS BEEN COMPILED. The volume has been prepared by the Gazetteers Department, Government of Maharashtra, under the guidance of an Editorial Board. The following are the present members of the Editorial Board:—

My thanks are due to Shri K. V. Yohannan, B.A., LL.B., Superintendent, Establishment; and Shri K. K. Chaudhari, M.A., Shri V. N. Gurav, M.A., Shri M. H. Ranade, B.A., and Shri S. K. Purohit, B.A., who compiled the different Chapters of this Gazetteer, and other members of the staff for their valuable assistance in the preparation and publication of this volume.

I will be failing in my duty, if I do not express my thanks to Dr. P. N. Chopra, M.A., Ph.D., Editor, District Gazetteers and the staff of the Central Gazetteers Unit, Union Ministry of Education, New Delhi for their effective role in planning and co-ordinating the work of preparation of the District Gazetteers. The Unit scrutinized the draft of this volume with great care and made several helpful suggestions with a view to improving the standard and quality of the publication. It may also be mentioned here that a portion of the expenditure incurred on the compilation and printing of the District Gazetter is being met by the Government of India.

Shri J. W. D'Souza, Director, Government Printing, Stationery and Publications, Bombay and Shri B. K. Rao, Manager, Government Press and Book Depot, Nagpur, also deserve my thanks for the execution of the printing work of this volume.

Many are the officials and non-officials who helped by supplying information on various points without whose help the work would have been difficult. To them all my thanks are due.

BOMBAY:
October, 1969.

B. G. KUNTE,
Executive Editor and Secretary.

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

The present areas of the Sangli district up to 1948 were partly included in the former Satara district and partly in the former States of Aundh, Jath, Sangli, Kurundwad (Senior), Miraj (Senior), Miraj (Junior) and Wadi Estates. The district was named as South Satara in 1949 which included four talukas of Tasgaon, Khanapur, Walwa and Shirala transferred from the former Satara district and the two new talukas of Miraj and Jath formed out of the erstwhile States. In 1960 the name was changed to Sangli district with its headquarters at Sangli in Miraj taluka.

There was no separate single Gazetteer compiled for the present areas of the Sangli district in the scheme of the compilation of Gazetteers undertaken in the latter part of the last century. However, very brief accounts on Jath, Khanapur, Shirala, and Tasgaon were given in the Satara District Gazetteer published in 1885. Similarly, the old Kolhapur District Gazetteer contained brief accounts on Miraj (Senior and Junior) and a fairly detailed account on Sangli State.

The present volume covers the entire area coming under the administrative jurisdiction of the now existing Sangli district.

As early as 1843 an attempt was made to arrange for the preparation of Statistical Accounts of the different districts of the Bombay Presidency. The following extract* will be found interesting as giving an idea of the intention of those who desired to have such Accounts compiled:—

"Then Government called on the Revenue Commissioner to obtain from all the Collector as part of their next Annual Report, the fullest available information regarding their districts. . . . . Government remarked that, as Collectors and their Assistants during the large portion of the year moved about the district in constant and intimate communication with all classes, they possessed advantage which no other public officers enjoyed of acquiring a full knowledge of the condition of the country; the causes of progress or retrogradation, the good measures which require to be fostered and extended, the evil measures which call for abandonment, the defects in existing institutions which require to be remedied, and the nature of the remedies to be applied. Collectors also, it was observed, have an opportunity of judging of the effect of British rule on the condition and character of the people, and their caste prejudices, and on their superstitious observances. They can trace any alteration for the better or worse in dwellings, clothing and diet, and can observe the use of improved implements of husbandry or other crafts, the habits of locomotion, the state of education, particularly among the higher classes whose decaying means and energy

* Gazetteer of Bombay Presidency, Vol. I, Part I [History of Gujarat], pp. iii and iv.

under our most levelling system compared with that of preceding Governments will attract their attention. Finally they can learn how far existing village institutions are effectual to their end and may be made available for self-government and in the management of local taxation for local purposes".

"In obedience to these orders, reports were received from the Collectors of Ahmedabad, Broach, Kaira, Thana and Khandesh. Some of the reports contained much interesting information. These five northern reports were practically the only result of the Circular Letter of 1843."

The matter does not seem to have been pursued any further.

In October 1867, the Secretary of State for India desired the Bombay Government to take concrete steps for the compilation of a Gazetteer of the Presidency on the model of the Gazetteer prepared during that year for the Central Provinces. The Government of Bombay then requested some of its responsible officials to submit a scheme for carrying into effect the orders of Secretary of State, and in 1868, appointed the Bombay Gazetteer Committee to supervise and direct the preparation of the Gazetteer. After a few organizational experiments the responsibility was finally entrusted to Mr. James M. Campbell of the Bombay Civil Service, who commenced the compilation in 1874 and completed the series in 1884. The actual publication, however, of these volumes was spread over a period of 27 years between 1877 and 1904 in which year the last General Index Volume was published.

Though a Gazetteer literally means only a geographical index or a geographical dictionary, the scope of this particular compilation was much wider. It included not only a description of the physical and natural features of a region but also a broad narrative of the social, political, economic and cultural life of the people living in that region. The purpose which the Gazetteer was intended to serve was made clear in the following remarks of Sir William Hunter, Director-General of Statistics to the Government of India, when his opinion was sought on a draft article on Dharwar District in 1871*. He said—

"My own conception of the work is that, in return for a couple of days' reading, the Account should give a new Collector, a comprehensive, and, at the same time, a distinct idea of the district which he has been sent to administer. Mere reading can never supersede practical experience in the district administion But a succinct and well conceived district account is capable of antedating the acquisition of such personal experience by many months and of both facilitating and systematising a Collector's personal enquiries . . . But in all cases a District Account besides dealing with local specialities should furnish a historical narration of its revenue and expenditure since it passed under the British rule, of the sums which we have taken from it in taxes, and of the amount which we have returned to it in the protection of property and person and the other charges of Civil Government".

*Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency, Vol. I, Part I (History of Gujarat), p. vii.

The Gazetteer was thus intended to give a complete picture of the district to men who were entire strangers to India and its people but who as members of the ruling race carried on their shoulders the responsibility of conducting its administration.

The Gazetteer had 27 Volumes, some split up into two or three parts, making a total of 35 books including the General Index which was published in 1904. Some of the Volumes were of a general nature and were not confined to the limits of a particular district. For example, Volume I dealt with history and was split up into two parts, one dealing with Gujarat and the other with Konkan, Deccan and Southern Maratha Country; Volume IX was devoted to the population of Gujarat and contained two parts, one describing Hindus and the other Mussalmans and Parsis, but there was no corresponding volume devoted to the population of Maharashtra or Karnatak; Volume XXV gave an account of the Botany of the area covered in the whole Presidency. The remaining volumes dealt with various districts of the Presidency and with what were then known as Native States attached to the Bombay Presidency. Some of the district volumes had two or three parts, for example, those of Thana, Kanara, Poona and Bombay. On the other hand, there was only one combined volume for some districts, as for example, Surat and Broach, and Kaira and Panch Mahals.

The scheme of the contents was more or less the same for all the district volumes though the accounts of particular items varied considerably from district to district. Information was collected from Government offices and, in respect of social and religious practices, from responsible citizens. Eminent scholars, experts and administrators contributed articles on special subjects.

This Gazetteer compiled over eighty years ago had long become scarce and entirely out of print. It contained authentic and useful information on several aspects of life in a district and was considered to be of great value to the administrator, and scholar and the general reader. There was a general desire that there should be a new and revised edition of this monumental work. The then Government of Bombay, therefore, decided that the old Gazetteers should be revised and republished, and entrusted the work of revision to an Editorial Board specially created for that purpose in 1949. This new edition has been prepared under the direction of that Editorial Board. In view of the reorganization of States in 1956 and the coming into existence of the State of Maharashtra

in 1960, areas for which no District Gazetteer had previously been compiled are taken up and new District Gazetteers are being compiled in accordance with the pattern.

In the nature of things, after a lapse of over 80 years after their publication, most of the statistical information contained in the old Gazetteer had become entirely out of date and had to be dropped altogether. In this edition an attempt has been made to give an idea of the latest developments, whether in regard to the administrative structure or the economic set-up or in regard to social, religious and cultural trends. There are portions in the old Gazetteer bearing on archaeology and history which have the impress of profound scholarship and learning and their worth has not diminished by the mere passage of time. Even in their case, however, some restatement is occasionally necessary in view of later investigations and new archaeological discoveries by scholars, and an attempt has been made to incorporate in this edition, the results of such subsequent research. The revision of old volumes has, in fact, meant an entire rewriting of most of the chapters and sections. In doing so, statistical and other information is obtained from the relevant Departments of Government, and articles on certain specialised subjects are obtained from competent scholars.

In this dynamic world, circumstances and facts of life change, and so do national requirements and social values. Such significant changes have taken place in India as in other countries during the last half a century, and more so after the advent of Independence in 1947. The general scheme and contents of this revised series of the Gazetteers have been adapted to the needs of altered conditions. There is inevitably some shift in emphasis in the presentation and interpretation of certain phenomena. For example, the weighted importance given to caste and community in the old Gazetteer cannot obviously accord with the ideological concepts of a secular democracy, though much of that data may have considerable interest from the functional, sociological or cultural point of view. What is necessary is a change in perspective in presenting that account so that it could be viewed against the background of a broad nationalism and the synthesis of a larger social life. It is also necessary to abridge and even to eliminate, elaborate details about customs and practices which no longer obtain on any extensive scale or which are too insignificant to need any elaboration. In the revised Gazetteer, therefore, only a general outline of the practices and customs of the population has been given.

An important addition to the District Volume in this edition is the Directory of Villages and Towns given at the end which contains, in a tabulated form, useful information about every village and town in the district. The district map given in this edition is also fairly large and up-to-date.

The revised Gazetteers are published in two series:—

1. *The General Series.*—This comprises volumes on subjects which can best be treated for the State as a whole and not for the smaller area of a district. As at present planned, they will deal with Physical Features, Maharashtra Land and its People, History, Language and Literature, Botany, Fauna and Public Administration.

2. *The District Series.*—This contains one Volume for every district of the Maharashtra State. The information given in all the Volumes will follow the same pattern, and the table of contents will more or less be the same for all the districts.

Diacritical marks to explain the pronunciation of names of places and of words in Indian languages have been used only in three chapters, namely, Chapter 2-History, Chapter 3-People and Chapter 19-Places and also in the Directory of Villages and Towns. In other chapters the current spellings have been retained. A key to the diacritical marks used is given at page 755.

BOMBAY: B. G. KUNTE,

October, 1969. *Executive Editor and Secretary.*

SANGLI

CHAPTER 1 — GENERAL *

CHAPTER 1.

General.

GEOGRAPHY.

Situation.

THE DISTRICT OF SANGLI IS ONE OF THE SOUTHERN DISTRICTS OF MAHARASHTRA lying between 16°43′ and 17°38′ north latitude and 73°41′ and 75°41′ east longitude and has an area of 8,591.3 kilometres and a population of 1,230,716 with 6 towns and 534 villages of which 4 are uninhabited according to the 1961 Census.[1] On the northern side, the district is bounded by the Satara district in the west and Sholapur district in the east. On the southern side, it is bordered by the Kolhapur district in the west, Belgaum and Bijapur districts in the centre and east. The latter continues to border the Sangli district on the eastern side also while beyond the Sahyadris on the west lies the Ratnagiri district.

Administrative Divisions.

The present areas of Sangli district were up to 1948 partly included in old Satara district and partly in the former States of Aundh, Jath, Sangli, Kurundwad (senior), Miraj (senior), Miraj (Junior) and Wadi Estates. In 1949, the district was named as South Satara district which included four talukas of Tasgaon, Khanapur, Walwa and Shirala transferred from old Satara district and two new talukas of Miraj and Jath formed out of the erstwhile Princely States. In 1960, the name of South Satara district was changed to Sangli district with its headquarters at Sangli in Miraj taluka. For administrative purposes, the district is at present divided into two sub-divisions, Walwa and Miraj. The Walwa sub-division comprises Khanapur, Shirala and Walwa talukas whereas the Miraj sub-division comprises Tasgaon, Jath and Miraj[2] talukas.

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* The section on Geography is contributed by Prof. K. Ramamurthy, Department of Geography, University of Poona.

[1] (a) This area figure given by the census authorities was obtained by them from the District Inspector of Land Records. The area figure of the district supplied to the census authorities by the Surveyor-General of India was 8,544 kilometres.

(b) Figures in respect of towns and villages have been taken from Census of India, 1961, Vol. X, part II-A.

[2] On 1st August 1964 Khanapur and Miraj talukas were reconstituted into Khanapur taluka and Atpadi Mahal, and Miraj taluka and Kavathe Mahankal Mahal, respectively. The Mahals are since termed as talukas under Government notification.

CHAPTER 1.

General.

GEOGRAPHY.

Administrative Divisions.

The following table gives details of the two administrative divisions of the district:—

TABLE No. 1

Sub-Division (1)	Name of taluka (2)	Name of Head-quarters (3)	Area in sq. km.* (4)	No. of villages (5)	No. of towns (6)	Population (7)
Walwa	Khanapur	Vita ..	2,174·1 (839·4)	129	1	222,563
	Shirala ..	Shirala ..	637·1 (246·0)	81	..	89,845
	Walwa ..	Uran Islampur.	778·0 (300·4)	58	2	203,428
Miraj ..	Tasgaon	Tasgaon	1,122·5 (433·4)	72	1	202,758
	Jath ..	Jath ..	2,262·9 (873·7)	97	..	138,983
	Miraj ..	Miraj ..	1,616·7 (624·2)	96	2	373,139
District Total			8,591·3 (3,317·1)	534	6	1,230,716

Boundaries.

The boundaries of the Sangli district are for the most part administrative and only in the western half coincide with natural features. The Sahyadris form the boundary at the extreme western end of the district for only about eight miles (12.87 km) southwards to just beyond the South Tivra pass from whence it runs eastwards along minor water-divides and stream courses to join the Varna river. Then the entire Varna, and after this river joins the Krishna, the latter till half a mile (.804 km) above Ganeshwadi, forms the southern boundary of the district. On the northern side, the boundary extends eastwards along a minor tributary of the Varna and after crossing this river runs north-eastwards for about two miles (3.21 km) along a minor watershed to join the main water-divides north of the Varna basin, roughly running parallel to the river in a south-easterly direction. Near Dhamavda and Girijavda this range splits into several spurs and the district boundary follows one of the north-easterly trending spurs and thence to the Krishna river. After following the course of the Krishna for about three miles and a half (5.63 km), the boundary turns northwards to join the Vardhangad-Machchindragad range and follows its crest line with some minor deviations and then turns eastwards along a spur to the north of Shamgaon. Apart from these natural boundaries in the western part of the district, the boundary elsewhere is mostly one of administrative convenience with only a few stretches along mountain crests and water-divides or stream courses.

Physical Features.

The hills of the district may broadly be grouped as follows:—

(1) the Sahyadris, the Bhairavgad-Kandur hills and their spurs,

* Figures in brackets indicate area in sq. miles.

(2) the Machchindragad-Kamal Bhairav *dongar*,

(3) the Mahimangad-Panhala range with its off-shoots, and

(4) the hills of the north-eastern part of the Khanapur taluka.

The main Sahyadrian rampart on the west rising to over 4,800 metres, forms the highest hill range in the district. On this is situated the fort of Prachitgad and the South Tivra pass connecting this district with Konkan by a footpath. The Shirala taluka consists mostly of the southern slopes of the Bhairavgad-Kandur hills which branches off from the main Sahyadris in a south-easterly direction. The western part up to Charan is fairly well-wooded. Here the hills steeply rise from the river banks (though not as steep as on the Kolhapur side) leaving little room for tillage. The slopes are covered with dense mixed jungle with isolated patches of agricultural land mainly devoted to *ragi*. There are also a considerable number of Dhangarwadis, villages of shepherds, who live by grazing sheep on the grassy hillsides. There is a line of springs below a pervious cap of the hills at a level varying from 4,400 metres (2,750 feet) in the west to 3,000 metres (2,500 feet) in the east. East of Charan, the Varna is bordered by a strip of land which is cultivable but the hills become less wooded.

From the main range of the Bhairavgad-Kandur hills, near Girijavda and Dhamavda several branch spurs radiate towards south-east, east and north-east separating the valleys of the Morna, Karmala and Kasegaon rivers, making up the hills of the Walwa taluka. The south-easterly spur is broken, being cut across by streams and ends in Mallikarjun *dongar* and Santoshgiri. There are three spurs extending north-east and east from this main spur, at the ends of which are situated the villages of Vategaon, Nerla and Kameri. All these hills have only narrow flat tops.

The Machchindragad-Kamal Bhairav *dongar* trending in a north-west to south-east direction, at whose southern end is situated Kundal, rises fairly steeply from the flood plain of the Krishna but descends more gently to the basin of the much smaller Sonhira stream, whose level is more than 300 metres above that of the Krishna. On account of the lower base level of the Krishna, the southern end of the range has been cut into and the watershed has receded due to the capturing of a few north-easterly tributary streams by the more powerful ones of the Krishna.

North of Machchindragad, these hills continue as Machchindragad-Vardhangad range, which is an off-shoot of the Mahadev hills and to which the district boundary approximates. Here also, the range presents a steeper slope towards the west or Krishna side and a gentler slope to the east. From this range a few spurs extend eastwards and produce between them several valley head amphitheatres drained by streams flowing into the Nani river, a tributary of the Yerla. On the flat tops of one of these spurs is situated the Dongarai Devi temple at a height of 3,970 metres.

CHAPTER 1. General. Geography. Physical Features.

The Mahimangad-Panhala range, another off-shoot from the Mahadev hills, lies to the east of the Yerla basin. The district boundary passes on to this range near Bhairavachiwadi from a westerly spur and then proceeds northwards along this up to about two miles (3.21 km.) north of the Taraskhind ghat. In these hills the land rises in two or three distinct terraces separated by precipitous slopes. The Taraskhind ghat is a major break in this range which is negotiated by the road from Mayani to Dighanchi.

Southwards this range broadens out into a wide plateau about Khanapur, the western edge forming a group of hills extending as far as Juna Panhalgad. The hills bounding this plateau on the eastern side form the water-divide between the Krishna drainage and the Bhima drainage. Below the south-eastern edge of this plateau is the main road from Miraj to Sangola, the railway line being placed parallel to it after a distance of about three miles (4.82 km). The plateau itself has been dissected by the Agrani river.

The eastern range has several broad and flat summit tops descending by precipitous slopes, especially in the south as in the Bhopalgad hill and the Parameshwar hill. The district boundary here approximates to the edge of the plateau. The flat tops of these hills are much wider in extent than those of the western part of the district. Vita-Khanapur-Dhalgaon road runs either on the water-divide on the top of the plateau or at a little lower level to the south of it. This water-divide between the northward flowing streams belonging to the Bhima drainage and the southward flowing streams belonging to the Krishna basin runs in a south-easterly direction passing to the south of Dhalgaon and four miles (6.43 km) to the south of Jath and leaves the district some two miles (3.21 km) south of Ravalgundwadi. On this triangular Khanapur plateau the higher plateau tops are over 4,000 metres.

East of the Khanapur plateau lies another plateau of somewhat lower level at about 3,200 metres above sea level comprising the western part of Jath taluka bounded on the north by hills rising to about 3,300 metres above sea level separating this plateau from the Sangola basin to the north. On the east, this plateau descends some ten miles (16 km) east of Jath by a scrap face to a still lower level of about 2,900 metres comprising the eastern part of the Jath taluka.

Rivers.

Within the limits of the Sangli district the Krishna forms the main river system, though the Shirala taluka in the west may be described as belonging to the Varna and the eastern part of the district as belonging to the Bhima drainage.

Varna.

The Varna takes its source some four miles (6.43 km) to the north of the district in the Sahyadris and after a southerly course for a few kilometres in the western part of Shirala runs in a south-easterly direction forming the southern boundary of the district to join the Krishna opposite to Haripur two miles (3.21 km) west of Sangli. Its banks are steep and broken and

only to the south-east of Charan, where it overflows its banks every year, there are small strips of extremely fertile land lying to the north of the river devoted to sugarcane, rice and jowar. The sugarcane fields are irrigated by oil pumps installed on the banks of the Varna river. The lands immediately bordering the river are planted with *shevri*, a fodder crop, just before the rains, which is harvested in about two and a half months. Besides supplying the much valuable fodder for cattle, in times of flood when the river inundates these *mali* lands, as they are called, they not only check soil erosion and prevent land slips but actually promote the accretion of silt. The soils grade from the fertile black soils of the *mali* and beyond, through the reddish brown to the red soils of the hill slopes. The villages usually avoid the area liable to flood and are perched on raised ground half a mile away from the river at the foot of the mountain slopes in spite of having to seek their drinking water supplies from wells sometimes even as deep as 30 metres. Some of the streams adjoining the villages have been bunded to store water for the use of animals. The houses are poorly built with roofs of flat country tiles and with walls of stalks of jowar or maize plastered with mud. In these areas of rather heavy rainfall the straw is usually stored in the *mala* just below the roof of the house to avoid damage by the moisture of the ground. Villages of this type, e.g., Charan, Bhilashi and Mangrul, situated on the lower slopes of the adjoining hills are connected by a road running parallel to the river and forming approximately the line of contact between the grassy slopes and cultivated lands.

Morna.

The river Morna, a tributary of the Varna, rises from a place very near the Dhamavda hill knot and flows between the southerly and south-easterly trending spurs. Villages such as Vakurde Bk., Antri Khurd and Mangle are situated on the stream bank in the trough of the depression. On both sides of the depression, where the land rises more suddenly up the slope of the hills are situated a series of villages linked together by cart tracks. The town of Shirala is a more prosperous settlement than those on the west, which is indicated by the houses with roofs of semi-cylindrical tiles or Mangalore tiles. Betel gardens are extensive, especially to the east of Shirala depending upon well irrigation. East of the Shirala depression is the Aitawade depression separated from the former by a series of low hills of just over 300 metres above it and into which the streams flow southwards to join the Varna. This depression is even more fertile than the Shirala one, containing extensive betel gardens under a system of excellent well irrigation, the betel vines enjoying the protection afforded by the bordering hills from the severity of the monsoon winds.

Krishna.

The Krishna is one of the three great rivers of Southern India. Like the Godavari and the Kaveri it rises to the east of the Western Ghats almost within sight of the Arabian Sea and falls into the Bay of Bengal traversing the entire breadth of the peninsula. In length it is less than the Godavari, but its drainage area, including the drainage of its two great tributaries,

CHAPTER 1. General. GEOGRAPHY. Rivers. Krishna.

the Bhima and the Tungabhadra is larger than that of either the Godavari or the Kaveri. Within the district it flows for a distance of about 108 kilometres and is joined by the Varna and the Yerla, while the Agrani river, with a greater part of its course within the district, joins it just outside. The Krishna is unfit for navigation. The channel bed is only about 40 to 45 metres across and outside the monsoon season the river is so shallow that it is possible to drive even bullock-carts across the bed in about knee-deep water.

The Krishna valley is the most fertile part of the district and on its banks which are some 30 to 50 metres above the channel bed are grown abundant crops of sugarcane, plantain and jowar. The strips of land immediately adjoining the river are planted with *shevri* in the same manner and for the same reasons as in the case of the Varna. Apart from the Krishna canal irrigation on the left bank of the river, the valuable crops on the *mali* lands are irrigated by oil pumps from *bhudkis* or wells on the banks of the river. Away from the banks in the Krishna valley there are few wells, as the river water is considerably below the level of the fields, and due to the greater depth of the soil in these areas well sinking is a very arduous task in order to reach the water bearing strata of rocks situated far below the surface. Unlike the Varna basin, there are numerous prosperous villages and towns located right on the high banks of the Krishna on the outside of the meander bends such as Narsingpur, Bahe, Borgaon, Walwa, Nagthane, Burli. Amanapur, Bhilawadi and Sangli. Sometimes there is a smaller twin settlement on the opposite bank also, connected to its primary by ferry service during the monsoon season, as Pundi to June Khed, Shirgaon to Walwa.

The right bank tributaries of the river except the Varna are small ones such as the Kasegaon river, the Peth river, Katora *odha*, Valu *odha* and Khara *odha*. The Kasegaon river passes by the village of that name where it is crossed by the main road and runs north-eastwards to join the Krishna just outside the district. The Peth *nala* having a similar north-easterly course receives the waters of the Katora *odha* and joins the Krishna near Bahe. The Valu *odha* and Khara *odha* draining the areas east of Islampur and Kameri join the Krishna at Walwa and Nagthane respectively. The main importance of these streams is that though they may be dry for a major part of the year in their valley troughs the water table is close to the surface and there are several villages supported by irrigation from numerous wells.

Yerla

The Yerla has a much larger drainage area and much larger, longer and more numerous direct tributaries than the Krishna within the limits of the Sangli district. It flows north to south in a valley flanked by the Vardhangad-Machchindragad range on the right or west and by the Mahimangad-Panhala range on the left or east. Intense well irrigation is found in the valley troughs of the Yerla and all its tributary streams unlike in the

Krishna valley. The important west bank tributary of the Yerla, the Nani *nadi*, has a course somewhat parallel to the Vardhangad-Machchindragad range and is joined by several small tributaries which drain the eastern slopes of that range, the chief of which is Mahadev *odha*. Half a mile below the junction of the latter, the Nani has been dammed at Chikhli and the Chikhli canal taking off from it on the western bank of the river affords some limited irrigation facilities between it and the river. The Sonhira *odha* is another west bank tributary of the Yerla flowing eastwards on the northern side of the Kamal Bhairav mountain into the Yerla. The east bank tributaries of the Yerla are generally longer though somewhat drier than those of the west. The most important of them is the Kapur *nala* which has a good subterranean flow of water under the sands even in the dry season. Oil pumps installed on *bhudkis* or wells on its banks tap this subterranean flow and regular crops of sugarcane, plantain and chilli are raised. At Tasgaon there are even cocoanut and *chiku* gardens on the banks of this stream.

On the western side, as has been mentioned earlier, a series of amphitheatres formed by the easterly spurs from the Vardhangad-Machchindragad range are drained by small tributary streams of the Yerla basin. Nestling in the centre of these amphitheatres are villages such as Shamgaon, Khamble, Apshinge, Nerli, Kotavdi and Shirasgaon linked together by cart tracks. There is a further eastern line of somewhat larger settlements such as Raygaon, Shalgaon, Vihapur, Nhavi, Kadegaon, Tadsar, Ambak and Devrashtra, which are linked by an unmetalled road, motorable only during the dry season. Still farther east on or near the left bank of the Nani river, there is a third line of settlements which is linked by a good metalled road, though these settlements are not of much larger size than those of the second. Settlements are fewer and smaller in size eastwards in the angle between the Nani and the Yerla probably due to the decrease in the fertility of the soils with increasing distance from the piedmont zone of Vardhangad-Machchindragad range.

East of the Yerla river the roads show a preference for watersheds, though some minor unmetalled roads such as the one from Islampur to Bahe is on the water-divide on the west of the Yerla also. The main road from Karad to Jath becomes a water-divide road after crossing the Yerla.

Agrani.

The Agrani river rises just a few miles above Balvadi in the Khanapur plateau and flows two miles (3.21 km) east of Khanapur deeply incised in the plateau. The narrow valley bottoms of this river and its incised tributaries are the only areas of fertile soils with facilities for well irrigation in the otherwise barren plateau areas. The east bank tributaries of the Agrani river have cut down relatively broader valleys and hence there is greater intensity of agriculture, and the villages are consequently larger and more frequent to the east of the river than to the

CHAPTER 1. General. GEOGRAPHY. Rivers. *Agrani*.

west. After flowing about twenty miles (32.18 km.) in a southward direction, the Agrani turns towards the south-east at Vajrachaunde in conformity with the change in trend of the Mahimangad-Panhala range, and leaves the district five miles (8 km) below Dhulgaon to join the Krishna river.

One important tributary of the Agrani river rises on the plateau some two miles (3.21 km) above Kundlapur and flows due southwards passing by Kuchi and Kavthe Mahankal before joining the Agrani. East of the railway line is another, somewhat larger, tributary flowing in a similar southerly direction on the banks of which many villages have developed.

Man.

The Man river has only about ten miles (16 km) of its course within or on the border of the district but along with its tributaries is responsible for draining the north-eastern parts of Khanapur and Miraj talukas and the northern part of the Jath taluka into the Bhima river. The Mhasvad canals taking off from the Mhasvad storage created on the Man just before its entry into the district provides irrigation facilities to the east of the river in the Khanapur taluka. To the west of the river are a number of tributaries draining the slopes of the Khanapur plateau eastwards into it. From north to south they are the Satvai, Masira, Bhakar, Gharkada, and Balateda formed by the union of the Bhandora Sikir and Dabucha streams, while two more of its tributaries, the Gondira and Ramghat, have only their upper courses in the district. Atpadi, the important village of this area, is situated on the Dabucha river surrounded on the three sides by a loop of the river on the road to Dighanchi on the Man river in the northern part of the taluka.

Korda.

The Korda river rising just to the west of Jath, flows northwards to join the Man outside the district. Along with its numerous tributary streams it drains the north-western part of the Jath taluka towards the Man. There is a remarkable development of well-irrigation in the valley troughs.

Bor.

The eastern part of the Jath taluka is drained principally by the Bor river with its tributaries Dodda and Darai northwards towards the Bhima river. The Bor rises on the northern slopes of the water-divide about three miles (4.28 km) to the north-east of Jath where it is known as Don and after a semicircular course on the plateau enters the lower plateau to the east by a gorge and flows *via* Daribadchi where it is known as Saval. On the Jath plateau there is a southerly stream known as Kasarki, first flowing eastwards and after a small deviation to the south of the district, joins the Bor river three miles (4.28 km) below Sankh under the name Darai.

Patna.

The Patna rises about six miles (9.65 km) south of the district and flows more or less in a northerly direction across the eastern part of the taluka to join the Bor at Karajagi.

Geographical Regions.

Geographically, the district may be divided broadly into the following regions: (1) The Varna basin with adjoining hills, (2) the krishna basin, (3) the Yerla basin and (4) the eastern plateaus.

CHAPTER 1. General. Geography. Geographical Regions. *Varna Basin.*

In the Varna basin the topography is very rugged and the rainfall is heaviest in the district and so it contains the principal forested areas of the district. Here rain-fed rice and jowar are the principal crops. In the western sections, on account of heavy rainfall combined with rugged slopes and poor soils, *ragi* is grown.

The Shirala taluka is more representative of this region than the Walwa taluka, a part of which also comes under the Varna basin. The Shirala taluka has the largest area under paddy, viz., 19,000 acres (7,689.03 hectares) *, forming two-thirds of the area under paddy of the district. It has 14,700 acres (5,948.89 hectares) under jowar, 3,600 acres (1,456.87 hectares) under *ragi* and 8,800 acres (3,561.23 hectares) under groundnut. Further about 1,800 acres (728.43 hectares) are under sugarcane and 1,700 acres (687.97 hectares) under maize. The area under grass and babul in this taluka is 59,000 acres (23,886.47 hectares) out of 1,06,300 acres (42,896.71 hectares) for the whole district, a consequence of the high rainfall and rugged relief of the taluka. There is no town of any size here. In the Varna basin because of the heavy monsoon rains the roads are bad, the road from Islampur to Arle being the worst of the motorable roads of the district.

The Varna Project envisages the construction of an earthen dam on the Varna river at Chandoli to impound a storage of 90,613,760 cubic metres (3,200 million cubic feet) of water and a series of 6 pick-up weirs down stream to enable lift-irrigation of 10,300 acres (4,168.27 hectares) in the basin lying in the Sangli district with a similar figure for the Kolhapur portion. This will lead to a great expansion of the area under sugarcane.

Krishna Basin.

The Krishna valley with its most fertile soils of the district raises a rich variety of crops. Apart from the Krishna canal irrigation on the eastern bank and irrigation from *bhudkis* on the bank of the river, the crops are mostly rain-fed, well-irrigation being difficult on account of the great depth of the soil. The most representative taluka of the Krishna valley is the Walwa, where the important crops are †jowar 73,293 (29,660.65), groundnut 28,541 (11,550.06), *harbhara* 7,698 (3,155.74), *tur* 5,358 (2,168.31), wheat 5,137 (2,078.87), sugarcane 4,610 (1,865.60), chillis 2,970 (1,201.91), rice 2,564 acres (1,037.61) and *udid* 2,395 acres (969.22).‡ The sugarcane acreage of the taluka accounts for more than one-third of the total acreage of the district. The Miraj taluka whose western part lies in the Krishna basin has the highest acreages for the whole district in chillis 2,983 (1,207.18), tobacco 10,337 (4,183.23) and betel-leaves 1,500 (607.029). The Walwa taluka ranks second in these crops with chillis 2,970 (1,201.91), tobacco 5,511 (2,230.22) and betel-leaves 450 acres (182.10). The Walwa taluka is one of the most

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* Figures of crop acreage in this section are based on the averages for 5 years 1955-56, 1956-57, 1957-58, 1958-59 and 1959-60.

† Census of India, 1961, Vol. X, Part II-A, p. 47.

‡ Figures in brackets indicate area in hectares.

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Geographical Regions.

Yerla Basin.

densely populated rural areas of Maharashtra. Soils here are very rich. People are generally progressive and have taken to intensive methods of cultivation.

In the Yerla basin apart from the Chikli canal, there is extensive well-irrigation. Crops similar to those of the Krishna basin are raised here also, though the soils are only moderately fertile. In the Yerla basin the Khanapur taluka may be taken to represent the northern part, while the Tasgaon taluka, the southern part. A comparative statement of the crop acreages is furnished below:—

	Khanapur taluka		*Tasgaon taluka*	
Bajra ..	136,154	(55,099·61)*	14,454	(5,849·33)
Jowar ..	128,493	(51,999·31)	105,489	(42,689·92)
Groundnut ..	23,820	(9,639·62)	43,590	(17,640·26)
Harbhara ..	11,897	(4,814·54)	8,045	(3,255·70)
Tur ..	11,726	(4,745·34)	10,072	(4,076)
Math	28,547	(11,552·57)	4,107	(1,661·74)
Udid ..	8,825	(3,571·35)	1,541	(623·62)
Sugarcane ..	969	(392·14)	1,599	(647·09)

* Figures in brackets indicate area in hectares while those without in acres.

As Khanapur includes a great part of the eastern drier plateaus, it ranks high in bajra, wheat and *math*.

In all these western areas of comparatively heavier rainfall the soils grade from the deep fertile soils of the river banks through reddish brown soils to the red soils of the higher slopes. *Vilayati sheng* is universally used as a hedge plant for the fields in these parts. In the Yerla basin especially in the eastern part, on account of the lesser rainfall, gray or murram soils are found on the higher slopes in addition to the red soils.

Eastern Plateaus.

The eastern plateaus may be sub-divided into three groups: (*a*) the Khanapur plateau, (*b*) western plateau of Jath and (*c*) lower eastern plateau of Jath. In these eastern plateaus the extent of the black soil diminishes and the ash coloured or murram soils and the red soils become more frequent. The red soils are considered to be superior to the murram soils for crops. On the plateau on account of the cooler climate, wheat is also grown along with bajra. On these murram soils, bajra does better than jowar. *Whondi*, a fodder crop of jowar is widely grown in the riverine lands. On account of the drier climate, the hills and

plateaus are less wooded and are very barren, fit only for rough grazing. On account of the greater lime content in the soil, the cattle are of a better class than those of the moister west. Even these barren plateaus and hilly areas are very carefully terraced with the help of *talyas* or bunds made of stones and mud and utilised for crops. The level in the eastern part of Jath is distinctly lower.

CHAPTER 1. General. GEOGRAPHY. Geographical Regions. *Eastern Plateaus.*

Though the eastern part of the Khanapur taluka is included in this region, the Jath taluka falls wholly in this region and may better represent this area. The crop acreages of Jath taluka are as below:—

Crops			Acres	Hectares
Jowar	..	..	178,158	(72,088·06).
Bajra ..	..	..	118,480	(47,947·20).
Harbhara	..	..	32,193	(13,028·05).
Math ..	..	..	17,533	(7,095·36).
Horsegram	..	..	7,970	(3,225·34).
Wheat	..	..	9,893	(4,003·56).
Sugarcane	..	..	839	(339·53).

The jowar crop of Jath is mostly grown in the *rabi* season unlike in the other talukas where it is mainly a *kharif* crop. It will be seen from the above figures that Khanapur and Jath together have more than two-thirds of the bajra acreage of the district and the least acreage under sugarcane.

GEOLOGY.*

The only geological formation in the district is the deccan traps (*Cretaceous-Eocene*). The deccan lava flows are found usually in the form of horizontally bedded sheets. At places a gentle dip of about 5° to the west is noticed. Vertical or inclined jointings at right-angles to the bedding planes of the trap are marked at places. The flows usually form flat-topped hills so characteristic of the trappean country. The traps belong to the type called 'plateau basalt'. They are more or less uniform in composition corresponding to dolerite or basalt. These are dark grey or greenish grey in colour. These traps are distinguished into vesicular and non-vesicular varieties. The non-vesicular types are hard, tough, compact and medium to fine-grained, and break with a conchoidal fracture. The vesicular types are comparatively soft and friable and break more easily. The amygdaloidal types are characterised by vesicles filled with quartz, chalcedony, calcite and zeolite.

* The section on Geology is contributed by the Geological Survey of India, Government of India, Calcutta.

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General.

GEOLOGY.

Some parts of the district, especially the river valley areas, are occupied by the typical black soil derived from the deccan traps. All the types, though varying in quality, are fertile on the whole. The black soil contains high alumina and carbonates of calcium and magnesium with variable amount of potash, low nitrogen and phosphorus. The soil is generally porous and swells considerably on addition of water, and dries up with cracks on losing moisture. The black soil is very fertile and does not require manuring for long periods. The broadest belt of this rich soil is found in the Krishna valley. The soil of reddish brown colour is found on the hills. This type of soil becomes fertile on proper manuring and irrigation.

There is no mineral of economic importance. The deccan traps serve as good building materials. They can also be used as road metal and railway ballasts.

The inter-trappean beds generally form aquifers. In the area comprising Tasgaon, Walwa and Shirala talukas, which is composed of deccan trap flows, the main aquifers are either the inter-trappean beds or the decomposed zones in the traps. The depth of the water-table is variable, generally being more than 6 metres. In general the deccan traps are unreliable sources of ground-water because of the sporadic distribution of their inter-trappean beds. Supplies are often exhausted owing to the limited storage areas and by leakage through natural springs. Shallow wells located on the banks of streams usually give fair supplies for household purposes. The quality of ground-water is good for all purposes, excepting where contamination results through the introduction of foul matter or by infiltration. Contamination is very common in the area and as such the water is hard, especially if drawn from the decomposed, amygdaloidal varieties of the traps, and is often brackish owing to the presence of sodium chloride and the sulphates of calcium and magnesium.

CLIMATE.*

The climate of this district is on the whole agreeable and is characterised by general dryness in the major part of the year. The cold season is from December to about the middle of February. The hot season which follows, lasts till the end of May. June to September is the south-west monsoon season and the two months, October and November, constitute the post-monsoon or retreating monsoon season.

Rainfall.

Records of rainfall in the district are available for nine stations for periods ranging from 15 to 83 years. The details of the rainfall at these stations and for the district as a whole are given in tables 2 and 3. The average annual rainfall in the district is 692.4 mm (27.26"). The rainfall in the western portion of the district, near the western ghats is considerably higher than in the rest of the district. The rainfall generally decreases from the western ghats towards the eastern portions of the district; Madhavpur (Vadgaon) near the western border of the district

* The write-up on climate is contributed by the Meteorological Department, Government of India, Poona.

getting 1,225.8 mm (48.26") and Jath in the eastern part getting only 528.2 mm (20.80"). Some rainfall in the form of thunder-showers occurs in May but the main rainy season is from June to September. The rainfall in the south-west monsoon months is about 68% of the annual total. July is the month with the heaviest rainfall. About 19 % of the annual rainfall is received in the post-monsoon season. The rainfall at individual stations shows considerable variations from year to year. It will be seen from table 2 that at some stations the rainfall has been as much as double the normal in some years while in some other years rainfall has been about half the normal. In the fifty year period 1901—1950 the annual rainfall in the district was the highest in 1932 when it amounted to 140% of the normal. Both 1918 and 1923 were years with the lowest rainfall which was only 57% of the normal. In the same fifty year period, the annual rainfall was less than 80% of the nomal in 14 years. There were three occasions when consecutive two years had rainfall less than 8/% of the normal. Consecutive four years of such low rainfall occurred during the period 1923—1926. It will be seen from table 3 that in 33 years out of fifty the rainfall in the district was between 500 and 800 mm (19.69" and 31.50").

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Rainfall.

TABLE

NORMALS AND EXTREMES

Station (1)	Number of years of data (2)		January (3)	February (4)	March (5)
Sangli	50	a	3·8	0·5	5·3
		b	0·2	0·0	0·5
Miraj	20	a	4·1	0·5	3·8
		b	0·2	0·1	0·7
Jath	50	a	2·0	2·0	4·8
		b	0·2	0·2	0·6
Islampur	50	a	4·1	0·8	4·3
		b	0·2	0·1	0·5
Shirala	50	a	4·1	0·5	6·3
		b	0·2	0·1	0·5
Vita	50	a	4·6	0·5	3·3
		b	0·3	0·0	0·3
Tasgaon	50	a	6·1	0·8	4·1
		b	0·2	0·1	0·4
Budhgaon	15	a	4·6	0·0	3·8
		b	0·1	0·0	0·5
Madhavpur (Vadgaon) ..	15	a	3·6	0·3	6·1
		b	0·1	0·1	0·5
Sangli (District) ..	..	a	4·1	0·7	4·6
		b	0·2	0·1	0·5

No. 2
of Rainfall

April (6)	May (7)	June (8)	July (9)	August (10)
22·1	48·3	71·1	108·7	79·8
1·8	3·1	6·0	11·1	7·9
32·0	56·4	70·4	110·0	110·7
2·3	3·4	5·8	9·7	8·7
18·8	31·5	68·8	65·8	63·3
1·4	2·8	5·3	5·3	4·5
24·4	43·9	89·1	149·3	82·8
1·7	2·9	6·6	11·7	7·8
20·8	41·4	123·9	270·5	149·1
1·7	2·6	8·6	17·5	13·5
15·2	34·3	77·2	98·0	68·8
1·2	2·5	6·3	8·9	6·4
23·1	47·2	86·9	107·2	78·0
1·8	3·2	6·9	10·3	7·1
26·4	50·3	81·8	121·2	94·2
1·6	2·3	5·7	9·9	6·9
48·5	62·2	189·2	411·7	216·1
3·3	3·5	12·1	22·7	18·0
25·7	46·2	95·4	160·3	104·8
1·9	2·9	7·0	11·9	9·0

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General.
CLIMATE.
Rainfall.

TABLE

NORMALS AND EXTREMES

Station	Number of years of data	September		October	November	December
(1)	(11)	(12)		(13)	(14)	(15)
Sangli	50	a	99·6	88·9	33·5	6·9
		b	6·6	5·3	2·0	0·4
Miraj	20	a	105·2	95·8	41·1	5·1
		b	5·9	6·1	2·4	0·5
Jath	50	a	152·9	77·2	33·0	8·1
		b	8·0	4·9	2·1	0·6
Islampur	50	a	101·6	94·0	35·6	8·9
		b	6·5	5·9	2·1	0·6
Shirala	50	a	103·9	97·0	39·6	5·1
		b	7·3	6·2	2·3	0·4
Vita	50	a	124·5	78·0	30·2	6·9
		b	7·4	4·6	1·8	0·4
Tasgaon	50	a	116·3	88·4	34·0	6·9
		b	7·3	5·3	2·1	0·5
Budhgaon	15	a	113·5	105·2	23·6	6·9
		b	5·9	5·2	1·2	0·3
Madhavpur (Vadgaon)	15	a	99·8	133·9	44·5	9·9
		b	8·5	7·3	3·1	0·8
Sangli (District) ..	..	a	113·0	95·4	35·0	7·2
		b	7·0	5·6	2·1	0·5

(a) Normal rainfall in mm.; (b) Average number of rainy days (days with rain of

No. 2—*contd.*

OF RAINFALL—*contd.*

Annual	Highest annual rainfall as % of normal year *	Lowest annual rainfall as % of normal year *	Heaviest rainfall in 24 hours †	
			Amount	Date
(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)
568·5 44·9	175 (1932)	47 (1918)	177·8	1914 August, 5.
635·1 45·8	167 (1932)	62 (1941)	162·8	1914 August, 5.
528·2 35·9	193 (1916)	43 (1920)	198·6	1938 September, 23.
638·8 46·6	202 (1932)	53 (1911)	140·7	1910 August, 21.
862·2 60·9	169 (1946)	52 (1918)	261·6	1898 July, 26.
541·5 40·1	178 (1944)	48 (1905)	146·1	1927 November, 11.
599·0 45·2	162 (1915)	55 (1926)	156·0	1944 September, 12.
631·5 39·5	197 (1944)	61 (1940)	165·1	1937 April, 18.
1225·8 80·1	151 (1946)	73 (1935)	152·4	1943 July, 9.
692·4 48·7	140 (1932)	57 (1918) (1923)		

2·5 mm or more). * Years given in brackets. † Based on all available data up to 1958.

TABLE No. 3

FREQUENCY OF ANNUAL RAINFALL IN THE DISTRICT

(*Data*: 1901—1950)

Range in mm	No. of years	Range in mm	No. of years
301—400	2	701—800	9
401—500	8	801—900	3
501—600	9	901—1,000	4
601—700	15	..	..

On an average there are 49 rainy days (i.e., days with rainfall of 2.5 mm-10 cents or more) in the district. As in the case of the amount of rainfall, this number varies from 80 at Vadgaon near the western ghats to 36 at Jath in the eastern part of the district.

The highest rainfall in 24 hours recorded at any station in the district was 261.6 mm (10.30") on July 26, 1898 at Shirala.

Temperature.

The only meteorological observatory in the district is at Miraj. The records of this observatory may be taken as representative of the climatic conditions over the district in general. The cold weather starts by about the end of November and lasts till about the middle of February, December being the coldest month. In this month the mean daily maximum temperature is 29.5°C (85.1°F) while the mean daily minimum is 14.3°C (57.7°F). The minimum temperature may sometimes go below 7°C (44.6°F). The period from about the middle of February to the end of May is one of continuous increase of temperature. In May, the hottest month, the mean daily maximum temperature is 37.5°C (99.5°F) and the mean daily minimum 22.7°C (72.9°F). The heat is intense and the maximum temperature may sometimes go up to 42.0°C (107.6°F). Afternoon thundershowers bring welcome relief from the heat on some days. The onset of the south-west monsoon by the first or second week of June brings down the day temperatures appreciably, but night temperatures continue to be nearly the same as in summer. During the south-west monsoon months the weather is cool and pleasant. Sometimes the day temperatures are even less than in the cold season. After the withdrawal of the south-west monsoon by the end of September, day temperatures increase slightly. After about mid-November both day and night temperatures begin to drop. Except during the south-west monsoon season the daily range of temperature is large and is of the order of 11° to 18°C at Miraj.

The highest maximum temperature recorded at Miraj was 42.2°C (108.0°F) on 1942 April, 2; 1940 May, 15 and 1934 June, 1. The lowest minimum temperature recorded at this station was 5.0°C (41.0°F) on 1945 January, 7.

CLIMATE.

Humidity.

In the south-west monsoon months the air is highly humid. In the post-monsoon, summer and cold seasons the air is dry particularly in the afternoons.

Cloudiness.

Skies are generally clear or lightly clouded during the months November to March. Cloudiness begins to increase progressively from April and afternoons are more clouded than the mornings. During the monsoon months the skies are heavily clouded to overcast.

Winds.

Winds are light to moderate except in the south-west monsoon season when they are stronger. In the south-west monsoon season, winds are from directions between south-west and north-west, the westerlies being more frequent. In the post-monsoon season they are predominantly from the north-east or east. Easterlies and south-easterlies are common in the cold season. By February westerlies and north-westerlies appear and these predominate in the summer.

Special Weather Phenomena.

Thunderstorms occur in the hot season and in the post-monsoon season. In the beginning and end of the south-west monsoon season rainfall is often associated with thunder.

Tables 4, 5 and 6 give the temperature and humidity, mean wind speed and frequency of special weather phenomena respectively for Miraj.

TABLE No. 4

NORMALS OF TEMPERATURE AND RELATIVE HUMIDITY (MIRAJ)

Month	Mean daily maximum temperature	Mean Daily minimum temperature	Highest maximum ever recorded	
—	oC	oC	oC	Date
January	30·5	14·1	33·9	1950 Jan. 31.
February	32·8	15·2	37·2	1953 Feb. 28.
March	36·1	18·5	40·6	1949 Mar. 28.
April	37·9	21·5	42·2	1942 Apr. 22.
May	37·5	22·7	42·2	1940 May 15.
June	31·5	22·3	42·2	1934 June 1.
July	27·9	21·7	35·0	1932 July 3.
August	28·2	21·2	34·4	1941 Aug. 30.
September	29·2	20·2	35·6	1951 Sep. 17.
October	31·0	20·1	36·1	1942 Oct. 5.
November	30·1	17·3	34·4	1958 Nov. 29.
December	29·5	14·3	34·4	1941 Dec. 9.
Annual	31·9	19·1	..	

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Special Weather Phenomena.

TABLE No. 4—*contd.*

NORMALS OF TEMPERATURE AND RELATIVE HUMIDITY (MIRAJ)—*contd.*

Month	Lowest minimum ever recorded		Relative Humidity	
	oC	Date	0830 %	1730* %
January	5·0	1945 Jan. 7	62	35
February	6·7	1944 Feb. 10	56	31
March	11·1	1957 Mar. 6	54	27
April	15·0	1944 Apr. 1	64	30
May	18·9	1937 May 1	73	40
June	19·4	1956 June 28	82	66
July	17·2	1945 July 4	86	79
August	17·8	1949 Aug. 22	87	76
September	15·6	1935 Sep. 21	86	68
October	12·2	1937 Oct. 16	74	51
November	8·3	1950 Nov. 28	65	45
December	7·2	1954 Dec. 30	61	37
Annual	..	..	71	49

*Hours I. S. T

TABLE No. 5

MEAN WIND SPEED IN KILOMETRES PER HOUR (MIRAJ)

January	February	March	April	May	June	July
7·4	7·7	8·9	10·6	14·2	16·3	18·0

August	September	October	November	December	Annual
15·4	12·2	8·4	8·5	8·4	11·3

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CLIMATE.
Special Weather Phenomena.

TABLE No. 6

Special Weather Phenomena (Miraj)

Mean No. of days with	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July
Thunder ..	0·0	0·0	1·7	4·4	6·1	3·1	0·1
Hail	0·0	0·0	0·1	0·1	0·0	0·0	0·0
Dust-Storm ..	0·1	0·0	0·1	0·2	0·4	0·2	0·0
Squall	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0
Fog	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0

Mean No. of days with	Aug.	Sep.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual
Thunder ..	0·9	2·0	4·0	0·9	0·4	23·6
Hail	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·2
Dust-Storm ..	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	1·0
Squall	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0
Fog	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0

FORESTS.*

Sangli forests belong to four groups, *viz.*, evergreen forests on the Sahyadri hills, wet and dry deciduous forests on the slopes of the hills that run east and form the catchment area of the Varna river, forests with bushy and stunted tree growth on the hills to the east of the Krishna and grassy area with sparse tree growth in Jath.

Sahyadri ghats and their slopes in the extreme west of the Sangli district are subject to heavy precipitation of rain and frost in this area. The forest is of evergreen type, consisting of stunted growth of *Eugenia jambulana* (*Jambhul*), *Actinodaphne hookeri* (*Pisa*), *Glochidion lanceolarium* (*Bhoma*), *Memecylonedule* (*Anjani*), *Terminalia chebula* (*Hirda*), *Flacourtia sopiaria* (*Tambat*), etc. This type of forest is found in the extreme west of Sangli district on the crest of the Sahyadri in the villages extending from Chandoli Kh. in the north to Bhogir in the south adjoining the Kolhapur district. They form compact forests and are not much broken by tillage and are found in Kundir, Sidheshwar, Bhogir villages in the extreme west of Shirala mahal.

Forests on narrow steep hills on both sides of the Varna river in the extreme west in Shirala mahal gradually merge from evergreen zone to wet mixed deciduous forests where teak is almost absent. This forest area has precipitation of rain

* The note on forests in Sangli district has been prepared on the basis of the material supplied by the Chief Conservator of Forests, Maharashtra State, Poona.

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FORESTS.

between 1,524 mm (60") and 2,540 mm (100"). On both sides of the Varna river the hills rise steeply leaving little room for tillage. On the hill slopes the vegetation is dense and in the valley where washing of the hill slopes is deposited, the tree growth is luxuriant forming high forest chiefly of *Eugenia jambulana* (*Jambhul*), *Memecylonedule* (*Anjani*), *Actino-daphne hookeri* (*Pisa*), *Artocarpus integrifolia* (*Phanas*), *Terminalia chebula* (*Hirda*), *Ficus religiosa* (*Vad*), *Mangifera indica* (*Amba*), *Lagerstromia lanceolata* (*Nana*), *Sideroxylon tomentosum* (*Kumbhal*), *Ficus glumerita* (*Payar*), *Samalia malabaricum* (*Sawar*), *Dellenia pentagyne* (*Karambal*), *Gerwia tiliaefolia* (*Dhaman*), *Ranwolfia densiflora* (*Hadkaya*), *Olea dioica* (*Parajambul*), *Terminalia balerica* (*Beheda*). The growth of *Ain* is gregarious on the lower slopes of the hill.

Forests on hill slopes about 32 km (20 miles) from the rise of the Varna river covering central and eastern parts of Shirala mahal and eastern part of Walwa taluka merge from wet mixed deciduous forests to the dry mixed deciduous type of forests with larger proportion of teak and its associates, viz., *Anogeissus latifolia* (*Dhavda*), *Terminalia tomentosa* (*Ain*), *Butea frondosa* (*Palas*), *Schleichtra trijuga* (*Kusum*), *Grewia tiliaefolia* (*Dhaman*), *Cassia fistula* (*Bhava*), *Eleodendron glaucum* (*Bhutkes*), *Albizzia lebbek* (*Shiras*), *Ziziphus zylopyra* (*Ghatbor*).

Forests in Tasgaon and Khanapur talukas which form the central portion of the district, are scrub forests with bare and bush sprinkled hills to the east of the Krishna.

In the east, forests in Atpadi mahal are mostly barren with scattered stunted and bushy growth of a few tree species such as *Acacia eburnea* (*Murmati*), *Acacia arabica* (*Babul*), *Ziziphus jujuba* (*Bor*). However in this area there are also a few matured scattered trees of *Azadirachta indica* (*Neem*), *Eugenia jambulana* (*Jambhul*), *Tamarindus indica* (*Chinch*), *Pongamia glabra* (*Karanj*).

In the extreme east in Jath, the forest area grows only *Khair* and *Tarwad*. Scattered tree growth exists in eight villages viz., Birnal, Belunkhi, Kholeshwar, Jirgyal, Sonkh, Waleshkhindi, Vashan and Khatali. Other areas in Jath taluka are rocky and *murmad* and grow only inferior type of grass.

The forest area in Sangli district under Satara Forest Division is as under:—

Type of forests	Area in acres	Area in hectares
(1)	(2)	(3)
Reserved	68,535·00	27,735·16
Protected	18·24	7·38
Leased	352·00	142·44
Unclassed	1,020·23	412·78
Total ..	69,926·07	28,297·76

The per capita distribution of forests and percentage under forests as compared with the State average is as given below:—

District or State	*Percentages under forests*	*Per capita forests in acres*
(1)	(2)	(3)
Sangli	2·20	0·09
Maharashtra State	21·08	0·52
India	24·00	0·54

WILD ANIMALS.

Wild life in Sangli district is confined only in the densely forest clad areas in the western portion of the Shirala mahal. The prominent among the wild animals are the bison, panther, sambar, bear, wild boar, hyaena, deer, fox and hare.

Of the above, bisons, bears and wild boars are confined to semi-evergreen and evergreen forests of Rundhiv plateau and slopes. Panther, *sambar* and deer are occasionally met within the forests of Bilashi and Charan. Fox and hare are very common throughout the district. These animals usually take shelter in the fields and in forests along *nalas* and river banks.

Panther.

The panther (*Panthera pardus* M. *Biblya Vagh*) seems to have almost vanished from the area. Human beings are generally not molested and no man-eaters have been recorded in the recent past. *Sambars, chectuls,* etc., form the natural food of the panthers. They also attack cattle, particularly calves.

Bear.

Bear (*Asval*) is usually found in the dense forests. It lives in hollows in rocks or in ravines and subsists on roots and fruits of forest trees. It seldom attacks a human being unless provoked and does little injury to cattle.

Hyaena.

The striped hyaena (*Hyaena striata,* M. *Taras*) usually seeks shelter in the natural holes or caves during daytime and moves about during night in search of carcasses.

Boar.

The wild boar (*Sus indicus,* M. *Dukkar*) is found in the dense forests of the district.

Hare and Deer.

The hare (*Lepus nigricollis,* M. *Sasa*) and deer are found in the scrub jungles. Their number has considerably diminished due to the wanton hunting by the local population. *Sambar* (*Rusa umicolor kerr*) is met within the forests of Bilashi and Charan.

Bison.

The guar or the Indian bison (*Bibos gaurus,* M. *Gava*) is the largest of all the bovines. It is found in the Rundhiv plateau.

Fox.

The Indian fox (*Vulpes bengalensis,* M. *Kolha*) is found throughout the district both in the open country and in the forests.

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General.

BIRDS.

There are very few wild birds left in the district, due to the extensive agricultural activities and paucity of forest lands. The pea fowls and jungle fowls are commonly met with in the forests of Shirala mahal. Partridges and quails are generally met with in grass *kurans* and in the sheltered places along *nalas* throughout the district.

FISH.

Potentialities.

The physical features of Sangli district are of varied nature consisting of plains, plateaus and hill ranges. The western ghats which form the western boundary of the district have thrown several spurs in the western region of the district. The high altitudes of these ranges and spurs receiving a rainfall of 1,397 mm. (55") have given rise to a number of streams and rivers in the district. The eight rivers in the district, namely, Nanni, Ghod, Kerda, Krishna, Yerla, Manganga, Bori and Agrani afford suitable habitats for fish life. Among these the Krishna and the Yerla are the important rivers, others generally running dry in late summer. The fish get suitable habitats in perennial pools of large rivers and the streams developed on account of earthen bunds on seasonal rivers and streams. Besides there are a few tanks and ponds in the district. Prospects of development of fisheries in the district are limited on account of the absence of a large number of perennial water sheets such as big reservoirs and irrigation tanks. Pisciculture in four tanks, namely. Ganpati at Miraj, Fakir and Yamai at Islampur and irrigation reservoir at Rethre Haranaksh has been undertaken by the department.

Important fresh water fauna of the district comprise the following varieties of fishes:—

Types.

Scientific name	Local name
Order : Opisthomi	
Family : *Mastacembeldae*	
Mastacembelus armatus (*Lacep*)—	*Vam.*

Vam is usually found in rivers and does not figure much in the catches. It attains a size of about .609 metres (2 feet) or more in length and is highly prized as food. It is usually caught by means of small hooks, as it frequents boulders with some currents where it is difficult to net.

Order : Apodes.	
Family : Anguillidae.	
Anguilla angiulla (*Ham.*)—	*Aheer.*

Aheer, from the eel group, is a rare variety found in rivers. It is usually caught by hooks and makes a good diet for invalids. It is a foul eater and is disliked by many on account of its snake-like appearance. It grows to about 1.219 metres (4 feet) in length.

Order : Eventognathi.	
Family : *Cyprinidae.*	
Sub-family : *Abramidinae.*	
Oxygaster clupeoids (BL.)——	*Vadshi.*
Oxygaster Phulo............	*Alkut.*

These are bright silvery fishes. The former grows to at least .228 metres (9 inches) in length and the latter to about .101 metres (4 inches). These are abundant in the rivers and constitute the mainstay of the fishermen and of the poor consumers as the fish is cheap and available in large quantities. They feed mainly on *Planktonic lorganismo* insect larvae and worms. They are of larvicidal character:—

Sub-family : *Rasborin.*

Barilius bendelisis (Ham.)	..	..	*Jhorya.*
Barilius evazardi (Day)	..	..	*Jhorya.*
Perilampus atpar (Ham.)	..	..	*Sonukli.*
Danio aequipinnatus (Meolelland)	..	..	*Balloki.*
Brachydanio rario (Ham.)	..	..	*Dandai, Dandali.*
Rasbora daniconius (Ham.)	..	..	*Dandvan.*

Of the aforesaid varieties only *Dandvan* is common while the remaining are found in small numbers in streams and rivers. They form the food of the poor classes. These fishes are small in size. *Dandvan* and *Balloki* are of some use as larvicidal fish.

Sub-family : Cyprininae.

Puntius (Tor), *Khurdree* (Sykes).—Locally called *mahaseer* is the angler's delight. It is found in rivers particularly in parts frequented by *Garra-mullya*. It prefers rocky bed and moderately strong current. The fish attains a weight even up to 18.14 kg. (40 lbs.).

Puntius (Tor), *mussullah* (Sykes).—*Khadas*. It reaches a length of over .914 metres (3 feet) and weighs over 9.07 kg. (20 lbs.).

Puntius jerdoni (Day) ..	..	..	..	*Parag, Potil.*
Puntius kolus (Skyes) ..	..	..	..	*Kolshi.*
Puntius sarana (Ham.)	..	..	..	*Khavli.*

The above species are medium sized carps growing from .152 metres to .457 metres (6 to 18 inches) and weighing up to a kilo or more and are common in rivers. They are used as food and are also of some value as semi-game fishes.

Puntius ticto (Ham.): *Khavli*.—It is useful as a larvicidal fish. Other *puntius* species are as follows:—

Puntius amphibius (c. and V.)	..	..	*Khavli.*
Puntius melanostigma (Day) ..	..	..	*Khavli.*
Puntius stigma (C. and V.) ..	..	..	*Khavli.*
Puntius fraseri (Hora and Misra)	..	..	*Kadwi.*

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Types.

The following five *Labeo* species which are common carps in Sangli district are esteemed as food and game-fishes:—

Labeo calbasu (Ham.)	*Kanas.*
Labeo boggut (Sykes)	*Sandasi, Sandi.*
Labeo fimbriatus (B l)	*Tambir.*
Labeo porcellus	*Tambudki, Tambudka.*
Labeo bata	*Tambti.*

Other fishes belonging to this sub-family are:—

Garra mullya (Skyes)	*Mullya, Malga.*
Garra bicornuata (Rao)	*Mullya, Malga.*
Cirrhina fulungee (Skyes)	*Kulicha ganna, Lulli.*
Cirrhina reba (Ham.)	..
Rohitee cotio (Ham.)	*Phankut.*
Rohitee vigorsil	*Vatani.*

Schizmatorhynchus (Sykes) *Nukta nutta.—Nukta* or *bhobri* is a two-mouthed fish. It is a rare variety. A conspicuous slit near the nasal aperture and above the oral aperture has given a two-mouthed appearance to this fish.

Rapidly growing varieties of carps, viz., *Catla catla* (Ham.), *Labeo rohita* (Ham.) and *Cirrhina mrigala* (Ham.) locally called *Catla, Rohu* and *Mrigal* respectively and imported from Bengal have been introduced in tanks and reservoirs by the Department of Fishe ies. They are expected to breed and establish themselves in due course and thus provide a source for producing the major carp fry. *Catla* grows up to 20 kg in weight and *Labeo rohita* and *Cirrhina mrigala* up to 10 kg. They are highly esteemed as food. A few fingerlings of *Catla catla* were collected from a pool adjacent to the Krishna river near Miraj.

Family	*Cobitidae.*
Lepidocephachthys quntea (Ham.) ..	*Mori.*
Lepidocephachthys thermalic (C. and V.)	*Mori.*
Nemachilichtys rupelli (Sykes)	*Chikli.*
Nemachilus denisonii (Day) — ..	*Murunga, Morchunga.*
Nemachilus botius (Ham.)	*Chikli.*
Nemachilus sp.	*Chikli.*
Botia striata var. kolhapurensis	*Waghmasa.*

These are small varieties growing up to .076 metres (3 inches). They are bottom feeders and dwell on gravelly and sandy bottoms. The soup of these fishes is supposed to be a sure cure for cough and cold.

Waghmasa from the *loaches* group is a coloured fish. The body is diversified by broad, dark and narrow yellow bands. The fish is hard and beautiful and finds a place in the aquaria:—

Order : Ostariophysi.

Sub-Order : *Siluroidae.*

Family : *Siluridae.*

Ompak bimaculatus (Bl)	*Wanz, Gugali.*
Ompak pabo (Ham.)	*Kali wanz.*
Wallago attu (Bl)	*Valshivda, Pangat, Bali, Ballu.*

All these varieties of fish are carnivorous and good for eating. *Wanz* and *Kali wanz* grow to about .304 metres (one foot) in length. *Valshivda* attains a length of at least 1.828 metres (6 feet). It is called fresh water shark due to its voracious nature.

Family : *Bagride.*

Mytus cavasius (Ham.)	*Katirna, Katarna.*
Mytus cavasius (Sykes)	*Shingulu.*
Mytus malabaricus (Jerdon)	*Shingati.*
Mytus aor (Ham.)	*Shingalu.*
Rita hastata (Val.)	*Kurdu.*
Rita pevimentata (Val.)	*Ghoghrya.*

Katirna, shingati and *ghoghrya* grow to about .254 metres (10 inches) while *kurdu* grows to about .152 metres (6 inches). *Shingalu* grows to about .457 metres (18 inches) and is relished as food. These fishes are found in rivers.

Family : *Sisoridae*

Gagata itchkees (Sykes)	*Itchka.*
Glyptothorax lonah (Sykes)	*Phattar chittu.*
Glyptothorax annandalei (Hora) *H.* ..	*Phattar chittu.*
Bagarius bagarius (Ham.)	*Khirit.*

These are found in rivers and are rare in catches. *Khirit* is called as blind fish on account of its very small eyes as compared to its huge body. An ugly looking fish, yellowish in colour with large irregular brownish black cross bands, it grows to an enormous size. It is known to be the largest fresh water fish with specimens weighing 75 kg reported to be netted from Panchganga.

Family : *Schilbeidae.*

Praeutropicthys taakree (Sykes)	*Munvi, Vyadi,*
Neotropius khavalchor (Kulkarni) ..	*Khavalchor.*
Pseudotropius atherinoide (Bl)	*Sura.*

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These are found in rivers and are rare in catches. They attain a length of .203 to .254 metres (eight to ten inches). *Khavalchor* occurs in the Panchganga and the Krishna rivers. Its local name signifies its remarkable lepidophagous habit of feeding on the scales of other fishes.

Order : Cyprinodontes.

Family : *Cyprinodontidae.*

Aplochilus lineatus (*C. and V.*) .. ..

It is a small fish growing up to .076 metres (three inches). It is very rarely found in the Varna and the Krishna rivers. It is known for its larvicidal nature.

Order : Synentognathi.

Family : *Xementodontidae.*

Xementodon cancila .. .. .. *Takali, Takri.*

This fish is rarely found in rivers and is not of commercial importance.

Order : Labyrinthici.

Family : *Ophicoephalidae.*

Chana gachua (Ham.) .. .. .. *Dokarya.*

Chana Leuco-punctatus (Sykes) .. .. *Kalamasa, Murrel.*

Chana marulius (Ham.) .. .. .. *Kalamasa, Murrel.*

Chana striatus (*Bl.*) .. .. .. *Mangsha.*

Osphronemus goramy (Lacep) .. .. *Gorami.*

Dokarya, Murrel and *Mangsha* are generally found in rivers and tanks. Being carnivorous, they are not useful for fish-culture. *Murrels* are highly esteemed as food. Due to their snake-like appearance, they are also known as "snake headed fishes". They possess an accessory respiratory organ and are able to respire directly from the atmosphere. They exhibit parental care.

Gorami is newly introduced in the tanks of Kolhapur City. It grows to about .457 metres (one and half feet) in length. This fish breeds in confined waters and being herbivorous is eminently suitable for fish culture.

Order : Percomorphi.

Family : *Ambassidaoe.*

Ambasis ronga (Ham.) .. .. .. *Kachki.*

Ambasis nama (Ham.) .. .. .. *Kachki.*

These are small carnivorous fishes found in tanks and rivers. They grow to about .050 to .076 metres (2 to 3 inches) in length. They are called as "Glass fish" in view of their transparent body and find a place in the aquaria.

Order : Gobioidae.

Family : *Gobiidae.*

Glassogobius giuris (Ham.) .. .. *Kharpya.*

This variety is found in rivers and tanks and shows considerable diversity in its proportions and colours. It grows to about .228 metres (9 inches) in length. They are very rare in catches and are not of much commercial importance.

The following types of nets are used in Sangli district:—

Fishing Gear.

The fishing in rivers and tanks is done by means of cast-nets (*Phekani*), fixed-nets (*Ghal*), drag-nets (*Wadap*), drift-nets (*Kandala*) and hook and line (*Davani*).

Cast-net.—The most elementary type of net in vogue which could continue to be of great use to inland fisheries, is the cast-net locally known as *phekani* or *bhor-jale*. It is also known as *mandur, admandur, patal-jale, kakari* and *karala* depending on the size of the mesh of the net. This net when cast in water takes the form of a circle and settles down over the fish. At the centre of this circle there is a long string for pulling the net. The periphery of the net is provided with weights to make it sink quickly into the depths. The peripheral margin of the net if folded to form a series of pockets wherein fishes get trapped when the net is hauled by pulling this string. The mesh of the net varies from 3.23 to 16.12 sq. cm (½" sq. to 2½" sq.) (Bar) depending on the size of the fish to be caught. This net is made of cotton twine generally (Yarn Nos. 20 and 30) and the cost varies from Rs. 40.00 to Rs. 70.00 depending on the size and mesh of the net.

Fixed-net (*Ghal, Khavar*).—It is a conical type of net the base of which is open and rectangular. The length of the net from the rim of the base to the tapering cod end is about 9.14 to 12.19 metres (30 feet to 40 feet) and the circumference at the mouth also varies from 9.14 to 12.19 metres (30 feet to 40 feet). The net resembles a trawl. The size of the mesh diminishes as the net tapers towards its extremity where it forms an impenetrable bag. The mouth of the net is made of strong hemp-twine.

The net is operated just after monsoon. It is so fixed that the mouth is kept wide open in the rectangular form against the current by supporting the lateral sides of the mouth by means of two strong bamboo poles. The poles are kept in position by means of wire ropes which are firmly fixed on both the banks. The fish collected at the tapering end is removed by loosening the rope tied round the tapering end. The cost of the net comes to about Rs. 200.

Drag-net (*Wadap*).—This is the largest type of net used in inland waters for catching fish both in rivers and tanks. The net is made of cotton twine and consists of 15 to 30 rectangular pieces, the number depending on the width of the sheet of water and on the middle conical piece. Each piece is about 5.49 metres (18 feet) in length and 6.10 to 7.62 metres (20 to 25 feet) in height with 3.23 sq. cm (½ sq. inch) mesh. The middle piece is conical in shape and with its cod end resembles the fixed net. The rings formed by rectangular pieces on either side of this conical bag are very extensive and collect the fish in the bag

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FISH.

Fishing Gear.

when dragged. The net, while in operation, is provided with wooden or tin floats along the head-rope and a few small stones are tied to the ground-rope to serve as sinkers. These keep the net erect. The operation of the net is interesting. A wall-net is first stretched across the river where fishing operations are to be undertaken so that the fish scared by the drag-net may not escape. The drag-net is spread across the river about a furlong away from the wall-net. Two coir ropes about .050 metres (2") thick and about 15.24 metres (50') long are tied to the ends of the drag-net. Each end is pulled by 10—15 persons and the net is thus dragged along the river. When the drag-net comes closer to the wall-net, its one end is joined to the adjacent end of the other net. Then the two free ends are pulled and the combined net is dragged across the river on the bank. In the process of dragging the net, most of the fish are enclosed in the central conical part of the drag-net wherefrom they are emptied by loosening the rope tied round the cod end. The drag-net is operated in the tank in the same manner except that the stationary wall-net is not used as the drag-net is hauled on the opposite bank. Each rectangular piece costs about Rs. 75 and the middle conicle piece costs about Rs. 250.

Drift-nets (Kandala).—Drift-nets known as *Kandalas* are of different meshes varying from 9.68 to 45.16 sq. cm. (1½" sq. to 7" sq.). Usually 20 to 22 rectangular pieces are joined together and operated by 12 fishermen. The net, while in operation, is provided with small sticks of reed along the head-rope to increase the buoyancy. A few small stones or earthen pallets are tied to the ground-rope to serve as sinkers. The one that is used at bottom set is known as *sutil*, *tivari* and *kandali* depending on the size of the mesh and the type of fish to be caught. The length of *sutil* net varies from 73.15 to 201.17 metres (240' to 660') and the depth from about 2.43 to 2.74 metres (8' to 9'). The other one which is used as surface net is about 45.70 metres (150') and the depth of the net is .914 to 1.219 metres (3' to 4'). No sinkers are used for this type of net.

The drift-nets are used in summer when the depth of water in the rivers and tanks is considerably reduced. The Department of Fisheries has succeeded in popularising gill-nets made of nylon which are now used extensively in and around the Kolhapur City.

Hook and line.—In addition to the fishing by nets, hooks and line method of fishing is also followed by fishermen of Sangli district. About 100 hooks are attached to a line which measures about 304.80 metres (1,000') in length. Floats of light wood, dried pumpkins or empty tins are attached to the head-rope. This kind of fishing is practised throughout the year.

Fishing Craft.—This is locally called as *Kayil* and resembles the jaggery pot as used in Kolhapur district but differs from it in that the bottom portion is curved. It is made of black tin. There is a small round depression in the middle. The diameter

of the boat is 2.43 metres (8 feet) and the depth is .914 metres (3 feet). The depth of the depression is .152 metres (6"). This type of boat is used by fishermen of Islampur, Bhilawadi and Borgaon in the river Krishna for operating nets like drag-nets and gill-nets.

CHAPTER 1. General. FISH. Fishing Gear.

Fishing Communities.

There are no concentrated fishing villages in Sangli district as are found in coastal districts. The households of fishermen are scattered in several villages and towns in the district. As per the Census of 1961, 173 persons are engaged in fishing in this district. Of these 117 persons are in rural areas and 56 in urban areas. As fishing does not provide with full-time employment, many are obliged to work as field labourers and carry on fishing as a side-business. The chief fishing communities are Bhois, Bagadis and Musalmans.

Fishing trade is centralised chiefly in the talukas of Miraj, Tasgaon, Walwa and Shirala.

Government Assistance.

The fishermen were first brought under the co-operative fold in 1961. There are at present 6 Fishermen's Co-operative Societies in Sangli district with a total membership of 255. The development of fisheries and encouragement and assistance to the fishermen of the district is entrusted to the Superintendent of Fisheries, Kolhapur. The fishermen are given assistance and loans for the purchase of sail cloth, suitable yarn for nets, purchase or repair of boats, etc. New varieties of fish are also introduced in tanks and ponds.

SNAKES.* Introduction.

Snakes, both poisonous and non-poisonous, in the district are more or less the same as those found in Satara district. Now-a-days the number of deaths due to snake-bites has considerably come down due to the invention of antivenom serum. An account of the snakes found in the district is given below:—

Family: *Typhlopidae.*

Non-Poisonous.

Typhlop braminus.—Locally called *Kadu,* is a very small, slender snake, like an earthworm, growing from .152 to .177 metres (6" to 7") in length and brownish black in colour. It usually burrows in loose moist soil or in debris. The scales on the body are imbricate. Sometimes it is found in kitchen gardens and even in backyards of residences. It is absolutely harmless. *Lycodon, aulicus* and *Oligodon sp.* have been reported from this region. These wolf-snakes are small with deep brown cross marks on a pale body. They are often mistaken for kraits.

Family: *Uropeltidae.*

Snakes of this family are purplish green with yellow specks and measure from .203 to .228 metres (eight to nine inches). The tail is very short with a transverse edge for digging and the bodies are covered by a series of rough spiny scales. These are primitive snakes and are normally met with under bushes and moist leaves.

* The section on Snakes is contributed by Dr. P. J. Deoras of the Haffkine Institute, Bombay.

CHAPTER I.

General.

SNAKES.

Non-Poisonous.

Family: *Colubridae.*

Ptyas mucosus.—It is locally called *Dhaman.* It is yellowish in colour with broken black lines on the back. It measures from 2.43 to 3.66 metres (eight to twelve feet) and moves very quickly and also scales the trees.

Natrix piscator.—It is a water snake found in ponds. It is olive brown with black lateral lines and checkered broad designs posteriorly. It grows from 1.21 to 1.82 metres (4′ to 6′).

Natrix stolata.—It is frequently encountered during rains and grows up to .609 metres (two feet). It is olivaceous with brown longitudinal stripes.

Dryophis sp.—It is a long slender parrot-green snake with an elongated snout growing up to .127 to .152 metres (five to six inches) in length. It is frequently found in the forest areas. This snake stays on green branches with an erect and pointed head. It is locally called *Harantol* or *Sarptol.*

Family: *Boidæ.*

Eryx conicus.—It is a small stumpy snake with a very blunt tail, brownish black and with a broken yellow pattern. It burrows by both ends. It is locally called *Mandol.*

Python molurus.—It is very rarely found in the forests of the district. It is locally called *Ajagar* and grows from 3.66 to 4.57 metres (12′ to 15′) in length. On the entire back there is a broken design of grey and brown patches with a streak of pink stripe by the side of the head. It normally inhabits areas adjoining lakes and thick forests and kills animals by strangulation.

Family: *Elapidæ.*

Poisonous.

Naja naja.—This is cobra, which is locally called *Nag, Akdya, Bhujang, Farud* or *Khadyanag.* It is distinguished by its habit of spreading a hood which may bear a spectacle mark or may be without a mark. Its colour is yellowish brown or in some rare cases black and the maximum length recorded is 1.68 metres (5′—6″). This snake is many a time found near human habitations and feeds on rats, frogs, etc. Being very poisonous, it takes a heavy toll by its venom which is neurotoxic. Once a year on the *Nagpanchami* day which falls some time in August, the local population worships this snake. In fact at Shirala, a large number of inhabitants collect these snakes on this day and a fair is held on the occasion which attracts a large number of people. It is believed that on this day either the snake does not bite or the poison is not effective. Investigations have shown that a large majority of snakes handled on this occasion are non-poisonous.

Bungarus coeruleus.—This krait snake is not a common snake. It is locally called *Manyar.* It is steel-blue with white double or single cross lines on the body. It is a very poisonous snake. A very timid snake that does not grow beyond

1.21 metres (four feet), it is found in crevices and cracks of walls. It is distinguishable from *Oligadon* by the presence of a series of hexagonal scales on the dorsal part of the body. The poison is neurotoxic and is well-nigh more toxic than cobra poison.

Family: Viperidæ.

Vipera russelli.—This is locally called *Ghonas.* It is brown with three chains of elliptical deep brown marks dorsally. The head is triangular and during the mating season the colour becomes slightly pinkish in males and a bit faint in females. During mating and breeding season, which is the summer and the monsoon, the amount of poison given is more and it is slightly more toxic, than that given at other times.

This snake is met with in bushy areas and when encountered hisses loudly and continuously. It can hurl and strike to a distance of .914 metres (three feet). The venom is vasotoxic and the bite is accompanied by a swelling and a severe burning pain.

Echis carinatus.—This snake is frequently met with during the rainy season, more in the plains and in areas with a reddish soil. Locally it is called *Phoorsa.* It grows to about .457 metres (18 inches) in length, and moves characteristically as a side winder. The body is olivaceous with black patches, but the head bears a white arrow mark. It strikes viciously and the amount of poison given is not lethal but the victim starts bleeding within 24 hours from any opening in the body. There is quite an amount of swelling at the site of the bite and often necrosis may also follow a severe burning pain.

Trimmeresurus malabaricus.—A grown-up snake, olive green with distinct blackish spots dorsally and yellow ones laterally, is pale green ventrally and grows to about .609 metres (2 feet); the young are brown above and grey below. It has a prominent lip and a pit too. It is normally found in the hilly regions amidst bomboo growth.

CHAPTER 2 — HISTORY*

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AS NO EXPLORATION OR EXCAVATION OF ANY PREHISTORIC SITE IN THIS DISTRICT HAS YET BEEN UNDERTAKEN, it is not possible to give a detailed account of the prehistoric period of its ancient history. The excavations done at Brahmapurī in Kolhāpūr have brought to view the remains of the historical period only. However, from the excavations done at Nevāsā in the Ahmadnagar district, some characteristic peculiarities of the Deccan culture in the chalcolithic period may be gleaned[1]. "The earliest habitations of the people in that period must have been in the river valleys. The thick forests which must have covered them first were cut down with their stone and copper tools. The elevated sites on the banks of rivers were then chosen for a settlement. Each settlement may have consisted of about 50 to 100 huts. The huts were small, measuring 10 ft. by 9 ft. and were either rectangular or circular. They were constructed with wooden posts, the walls being of mud and the roof of bamboo matting, dry leaves, etc., covered with a layer of mud. The houses were furnished with large and small storage jars, bowls (*vāṭīs*) and vessels (*loṭās*) with long spouts. Their red surface was painted in black with geometric designs or figures of animals. They wore garments of cotton and probably also of (wild) silk. For their ornaments they used beads of semi-precious stones, crystal, terracotta and rarely of copper and even of gold. Silver was unknown. Bangles were made of copper, burnt clay or bone, rarely of ivory.

For weapons, they used products of chalcedony blade industry, flat copper axes and slings with round balls of various sizes. Their tools were made of dolerite and copper. They pounded their grains with plano-convex rubber stones. Besides, they ate beef, mutton, pork, venison and river fish. Hunting and animal grazing formed their main occupations.

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The account from 1294 A.D. to 1761 A.D. has been contributed by Dr. B. G. Kunte, M.A., Ph.D. (Econ.), Ph. D. (History), Joint Editor and revised by Shri P. Setu Madhav Rao, M.A., I.A.S. (Retd.), Executive Editor.

The account from 1761 onwards has been contributed by Prof. R. V. Oturkar, M. A.

[1] Summarised from H. D. Sankalia's *Indian Archaeology Today*, p p. 88 f.

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They buried their dead either within the house floor or outside. The children were buried in wide-mouthed urns. The dead were provided with bowls, spouted vessels and necklaces of copper and carnelian.

Economically these people were in a pastoral-*cum*- hunting-*cum* agricultural stage and lived in small villages on river banks. They still used stone for various purposes, the use of copper being rare. This kind of life continued until it was changed by a fresh influx of people who came with a knowledge of iron, agriculture and town-planning in about the fourth century B. C. Who these people were is not definitely known, but one plausible conjecture is that they belonged to some of the Āryan tribes. This theory, however, needs confirmation by stronger evidence.

The above gleanings are from the archaeological excavations at such sites as Nevāsā. We shall next see what light is thrown on this period by literary sources. According to literary tradition, when the Āryans penetrated to the Deccan, the whole region was covered by a thick jungle, which extended southward from Central India. Agastya was the first Āryan, who crossed the Vindhya and fixed his residence on the bank of the Godāvarī. This memorable event is commemorated by the mythological story which represents Vindhya as bending before his *guru* Agastya when the latter approached him. The sage asked the mountain to remain in that condition until he returned from the south, which he never did. Agastya was followed by several other sages who established their hermitages in different regions of the south. The cluster of hermitages on the bank of the Godāvarī was called *Jana-sthāna* to distinguish it from the surrounding forest country. They were constantly harassed by the original inhabitants of the region who are called *Rākṣasas* in the *Rāmāyaṇa*. "These shapeless and ill-looking monsters testify to their abominal character by various cruel and terrific displays. They implicate the hermits in impure practices and perform greatest outrages. Changing their shapes and hiding in the thickets adjoining the hermitages, these frightful beings delight in terrifying the devotees. They cast away their sacrificial ladles and vessels; they pollute cooked oblations and utterly defile the offerings with blood. These faithless creatures inject frightful sounds into the ears of the faithful and austere hermits. At the time of the sacrifice they snatch away the jars, the flowers and the sacred grass of these sober-minded men."[1]

In course of time a large kingdom was founded north of the Godāvarī by Vidarbha, the son of Ṛṣabhadeva. His capital was Kuṇḍinapūra in the Amrāvatī district of the country since then known by his name. Agastya married his daughter Lopāmudrā. Agastya is the seer of some hymns of the *Ṛgveda*. His wife Lopāmudrā is also mentioned in the *Rgveda* I. 179, 4. The country became well known in the age of the *Brāhmaṇas* and the *Upaniṣads*, in which it is frequently mentioned. The *Rāmāyana* in the *Uttarakāṇḍa* states the story of king Daṇḍa or Daṇḍaka,

[1] Muir's *Original Sanskrit Texts*.

in whose time Vidarbha was devastated by a violent storm. Daṇḍa was a son of Ikṣvāku and grandson of Manu. He ruled over the country between the Vindhya and the Saivala mountains from his capital Madhumanta. He led a voluptuous life and once upon a time he violated the daughter of the sage Bhārgava. The sage then cursed the king that his whole kingdom would be devastated by a terrible dust-storm. The whole country between the Vindhya and the Saivala mountains extending over a thousand *yojanas* was consequently turned into a great forest, which since then came to be known as *Daṇḍakāraṇya*. It was in this forest that the Śūdra ascetic Śambūka was practising penance. As this was an irreligious act according to the notions of those days, Rāma beheaded him and revived the life of a *Brāhmaṇa* boy who had died prematurely. The place where Śambūka was beheaded is still shown on the hill of Rāmṭek, 28 miles from Nāgpūr.

The Central part of the Deccan was divided into several countries known by different names. Thus the region to the north of the Godāvarī, now included in the Auraṅgābād district was known by the name of Mūlaka. This country, together with its capital Pratiṣṭhāna (modern Paiṭhaṇ) is mentioned in Pālī literature. To the north of it lay the country of Ṛṣīka, now called Khāndeś. To the east of Ṛṣīka was Vidarbha, which has already been described. Along the southern bank of the Godāvārī extended the country of Aśmaka (Pālī: Assaka), which comprised the modern Ahmadnagar and Bīḍ districts. This region came to be included in the country of Kuntala, which extended far to the south. It included what is now known as the Southern Marāṭhā Country as well as North Karnāṭaka and the Śimogā and Citaldurga districts of the old Mysore State. In an inscriptional passage the upper valley of the Kṛṣṇā is said to be included in the country of Kuntala[1]. In the *Udayasundarī-kathā* of Soḍḍhala (11th Century A.D.) Pratiṣṭhāna on the Godāvarī is said to be the capital of the Kuntala country. In early times, Kuntala was probably included in the larger country called Mahārāṣṭra. The Aihole inscription (7th Century A.D.) speaks of three Mahārāṣṭras, which probably comprised Vidarbha, Western Mahārāṣṭra and Kuntala. In later times Kuntala came to denote the predominantly Kanarese country now included in the Mysore State. It is described as a seven and a half lakh province. The Early Cālukyas of Badāmī and the Later Cālukyas of Kalyāṇī were known as *Kuntalendras* or lords of Kuntala. In the earlier days, however, the districts of Kolhāpūr, Sātārā, Śolāpūr and Sāṅglī, which are now Marāṭhī-speaking, were included in Kuntala. As we shall see later, the Early Rāṣṭrakūṭas of Mānapura, who were ruling over this territory, were known as *Kuntaleśvaras* (or rulers of Kuntala).

Coming to historical times, we find that all this territory was included in the empire of Aśoka. No inscription of the great Emperor has been found in the Deccan, but one set of his rock-edicts was engraved at Sopārā (ancient Śūrpāraka in North

[1] Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. I, p. 9.

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Konkan). Another edict issued evidently by his *Dharma-mahāmātra* in his fourteenth regnal year, has been found at Devtek in the Cāndā district of Vidarbha[1]. Again the fifth and the thirteenth rock edicts of Aśoka mention Rāṣṭrika-Petenikas and Bhoja-Petenikas respectively. Many scholars take Petenikas mentioned in these edicts as referring to the residents of Pratiṣṭhāna (modern Paiṭhaṇ), but Dr. D. R. Bhandarkar would prefer to take the word to mean 'hereditary'. Be that as it may, the Rāṣṭrikas were undoubtedly the rulers of this region; for they came to be known later as Mahārathis.

After the overthrow of the Maurya dynasty in *circa* 184 B.C. the imperial throne in Pāṭaliputra was occupied by the *Senāpati* Puṣyamitra, the founder of the Śuṅga dynasty. His son Agnimitra was appointed Viceroy of Maḷvā and ruled from Vidiśā, modern Besnagar, a small village near Bhilsā. Vidarbha, which had seceded from the Maurya empire during the reign of one of the weak successors of Aśoka, was then ruled by Yajñasena. He imprisoned his cousin Mādhavasena, who was a rival claimant for the throne. The sister of Mādhavasena escaped to Maḷvā and got admission as a hand-maid to the queen under the name of Mālavikā. Agnimitra, who had espoused the cause of Mādhavasena and had sent an army against the king of Vidarbha, fell in love with Mālavikā and married her. The Mālava army defeated the king of Vidarbha and released Mādhavasena. Agnimitra then divided the country of Vidarbha between the two cousins, each ruling on one side of the Varadā (modern Wardhā). The story of Mālavikā forms the plot of the Saṃskṛt play *Mālavikāgnimitra* of Kālidāsa.

Kālidāsa does not state to what royal family Yajñasena and Mādhavasena belonged and these names do not occur anywhere else. Still, it is possible to conjecture that they may have been feudatories of the Sātavāhanas. From the Hāthigumphā inscription at Udayagirī near Bhuvaneśvara, we learn that Khāravela, the king of Kaliṅga, who was a contemporary of Puṣyamitra, sent an army to the western region, not minding Sātakarṇi. The latter evidently belonged to the Sātavāhana dynasty as the name occurs often in that family. Khāravela's army is said to have penetrated up to the river Kanhabeṇṇā and struck terror in the hearts of the people of Ṛṣika. The Kanhabeṇṇā is evidently the river Kanhān[2] which flows about 10 miles from Nāgpūr, and not the river Kṛṣṇā which flows south-west from Udayagirī, as some scholars suppose. Khāravela's army thus invaded Vidarbha. He knew that as the ruler of Vidarbha was a feudatory of Sātakarṇi, the latter would rush to his aid. When Vidarbha was thus invaded, the people of Ṛṣīka (Khāndeś), which bordered Vidarbha on the west, were naturally terror-stricken. No actual engagement seems, however, to have taken place and the army returned to Kaliṅga perhaps at the approach of the Sātavāhana forces.

[1] *Ibid.*, Vol. I, p. 46.

[2] *Ibid.*, Vol. III, p. 46.

Sātakarṇi belonged to the Sātavāhana family. This family derived its name from king Sātavāhana[1], who rose to power soon after the death of Aśoka and had his capital at Pratiṣṭhāna (Paiṭhaṇ in the Auraṅgābād district). It received support from the local rulers called Mahāraṭhis, with whom it formed matrimonial alliances. This dynasty is called Āndhra in the *Purāṇas*, but that it originally hailed from Western Mahārāṣṭra is indicated by its earliest inscriptions which are found in the caves at Nāṇeghāṭ near Junnar and at Nāśik. Its earliest coins have been found at Auraṅgābād and in Vidarbha. In later times it extended its rule to Āndhra as shown by its later inscriptions and coins found in that region. The *Purāṇas* call it Āndhra evidently because it was ruling in that country when the Puranic account was compiled in the early centuries of the Christian era.

Though king Śatavāhana was the founder of this family, he is not mentioned in the *Purāṇas*. The first king of the Āndhra (i.e. Sātavāhana) dynasty mentioned in the *Purāṇas* is Śimuka (Śrīmukha), who is also known from a relievo statue of his in a Nāṇeghāṭ cave. We do not know the extent of his kingdom, but it is surmised to have extended at least from Junnar to Pratiṣṭhāna (Paiṭhaṇ). When he ended his rule, his son Sātakarṇi was a minor and so his brother Kṛṣṇa ascended the throne. He has left an inscription in a cave which he got excavated for the Buddhist monks at Nāśik. The next ruler of the dynasty is Sātakarṇi I, who is also known from a relievo statue in the same Nāṇeghāṭ cave. He seems to have extended his rule over the whole of the Deccan and even carried his arms north of the Narmadā. King Khāravela of Kaliṅga, who was his contemporary, is said to have sent an army to the west, not minding Sātakarṇi, who is probably this very ruler. When the army reached Kanhabeṇṇā, which, as shown above, is probably the Kanhān flowing near Nāgpūr, it struck terror in the hearts of the people of Ṛṣīka (Khāndeś). There was no clash of arms on this occasion, but two years later, Khāravela penetrated further west as he claims to have received submission from the Raṭhikas and Bhojakas, who were probably ruling in the Deccan as feudatories of the Sātavāhanas.

Sātakarṇi performed the *Rājasūya* and *Aśvamedha* sacrifices (the latter twice), which probably commemorated important victories or supremacy in the Deccan and, as such, had political significance. He performed several other *Śrauta* sacrifices such as *Agnyādheya*, *Āptoryāma*, *Daśrātra*, *Trayodaśarātra*. *Āṅgirasatrirātra*, *Śatarātra* and *Gavāmayana*, all of which were marked by munificent gifts of horses, elephants, land and *kārṣapaṇas*. They are recorded in a large, but now sadly mutilated inscription in a cave at Nāṇeghāṭ.

Sātakarṇi left behind two sons, Vediśrī and Śaktiśrī, who are mentioned in the Nāṇeghāṭ inscription. Vediśrī, who succeeded

[1] *Ibid.*, Vol. III, pp. 1 f.

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him, is described as a very brave prince whose army was always victorious and who became the lord of Dakṣiṇāpatha (Deccan)[1]. The Sāṅglī district was evidently included in his dominion. He was succeeded by a number of rulers who are named in the Puranic lists, but about whom they furnish little information except their reign-periods which also vary in different *Purāṇas* and even in the manuscripts of the same *Purāṇas*. But one or two of them are noteworthy. The thirteenth ruler in the list was named Kuntala Sātakarṇi who is said to have ruled for eight years. He took this name probably because the Kuntala country formed an important part of his dominion. Another noteworthy ruler is Hāla, the reputed author of the *Gāthā-saptaśati*, a unique collection of seven hundred Prākṛt verses descriptive of the social, religious and economic life of the period. Hāla flourished in the first century A.D.[2]

Some years after Hāla's reign Mahārāṣṭra was conquered by the Śaka Kṣatrapas. Nahapāna, a Śaka Kṣatrapa probably appointed by the contemporary Kuṣāṇa Emperor, was ruling over Koṅkaṇ, Pooṇā, Nāśik and some other districts of Western Mahārāṣṭra as also some portions of Central India as far north as Ajmer. Vidarbha also was under the rule of another Kṣatrapa named Rupiamma as disclosed by a pillar inscription recently discovered in the Bhaṇḍārā district[3]. The Sātavāhanas were therefore obliged to leave Western Mahārāṣṭra and Vidarbha and repair to the southern part of their dominion, but Gautamīputra Sātakarṇi soon retrieved the fortune of his family. He made a daring dash into Vidarbha and occupied Beṇākaṭa or the Vaingaṅgā district. Thereafter he invaded Western Mahārāṣṭra and defeated Nahapāna somewhere in the Nāśik district. This is shown by the inscription in one of the Nāśik caves wherein he is called *Beṇākaṭaka-svāmī* or the lord of Beṇākaṭa (Vaingaṅgā District). He extended his rule to a large part of the peninsula as his chargers are said to have drunk the water of the three oceans. The following provinces are specifically mentioned as comprised in his dominion:—

> Ṛṣika (Khāndeś), Aśmaka (Ahmadnagar and Bīḍ districts), Vidarbha, Ākara and Avantī (Eastern and Western Māḷwā), Suraṭha (Kathiāvāḍ) and Aparānta (north Koṅkaṇ).

That his empire extended much further is shown by the description that the mountains Setagiri (near Nāgārjunkoṇḍā), Śrīstana (Kurnul district) and Mahendra (between the Godāvarī and the Kṛṣṇā) were situated in his kingdom.

After defeating Nahapāna Gautamīputra called back the silver coins of the Śaka Kṣatrapa and restruck them. The Jogaltembhi hoard contained more than 10,000 silver coins so counterstruck. He himself issued a large number of potin coins with the figure of an elephant with uplifted trunk on the obverse, and

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[1] *Ibid.*, Vol. I, pp. 122 f.

[2] *Ibid.*, Vol. I, pp. 76 f.

[3] *Nagpur University Journal*, Vol. XVI, pp. 1 f.

the Ujjain symbol on the reverse.[1] In the hoard of potin coins found at Tarhāla in the Akolā district of Vidarbha, out of nearly 1200 coins as many as 575 were of Gautamīputra.

Gautamiputra Śātakarṇi was succeeded by Vāsiṣṭhīputra Puḷumāvī, who also ruled over an extensive kingdom, but seems to have lost some northern provinces like Ākarāvantī and Surāṣṭra to the Kṣatrapas. He was succeeded by his brother Vāsiṣṭhīputra Sātakarṇi, who married the daughter of the Śaka Kṣatrapa Rudradāman I. Among his successors the most noteworthy was Yajñaśrī Sātakarṇi, whose inscriptions and coins have been found over a large area. They show that he ruled over an extensive kingdom stretching from Koṅkaṇ in the west to Āndhradeśa in the east. He issued among other types the ship-type lead coins indicative of his rule over the maritime province of the Coromandel coast.[2]

Within about fifty years after Yajña Sātakarṇi the rule of Sātavāhanas came to an end. The Sātavāhanas were liberal patrons of learning and religion. As stated above, the early kings of the family performed Vedic sacrifices and lavished gifts on the *Brāhmaṇas*. Gautamīputra, Puḷumāvi and Yajñaśrī, like the early king Kṛṣṇa, excavated caves and donated villages to provide for the maintenance, clothing and medicine of the Buddhist monks. As stated before, the *Gāthāsaptaśati*, an anthology of 700 Prākṛt verses, is by tradition ascribed to king Hāla of this family.

During the period of the Sātavāhanas the Kolhāpūr and probably also the Sāṅglī districts were governed by some princes of the Kura family. The coins of three kings, *viz.*, Vāsiṣṭhīputra Viḷivāyakura, his successor Māḍharīputra Śivalakura and the latter's successor Gautamīputra Viḷivāyakura have been found in the excavations at Brahmapurī, a suburb of Kolhāpūr. They have the figures of the bow and arrow on the obverse and the Caitya and the tree on the reverse. Rapson identified Gautamīputra and Vāsiṣṭhīputra of these coins with the Sātavāhana kings Gautamīputra Sātakarṇi and Vāsiṣṭīputra Puḷumāvi, but from the *birūda* Mahārathi prefixed to the name of Māḍharīputra Śivalakura on a coin published by Kundangar, it is clear that these princes were not identical with the homonymous Sātavāhana kings but were their feudatories.

About 250 A. D. the Sātavāhanas disappear from the stage of history. Then there arose several families in different parts of the vast Sātavāhana empire. Northern Mahārāṣṭra was occupied by the Ābhīras. The founder of the dynasty was the Ābhīra *Rājan* Iśvarasena, the son of Śivadatta, who has left an inscription in a cave, at Nāśik. He started an era commencing in A. D. 250, which later became well-known as the Kalacurī-Cedī era. Judging by the expansion of this era, Iśvarasena and his descendants

[1] Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. III, pp. 38 f.

[2] *Ibid.*, Vol. III, pp. 17 f.

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seem to have ruled over a large territory comprising Gujarāt, Koṅkaṇ and Northern Mahārāṣṭra. He was followed by nine other kings, whose names, unfortunately, are not given in the *Purāṇas*, which state that they ruled for 167 years. From a casket discovered during excavations at Devṇī Morī in Gujarāt, we know the name of one of these kings as Rudrasena.[1] His family name *Kathika* also has become known from the same source. He was ruling in the year 127 of the Ābhīra era, corresponding to A. D. 376-77. The Ābhīras were supplanted by their feudatories the Traikūṭakas in *circa* A. D. 415.

The names of three Traikūṭaka kings are known from their inscriptions and coins, *viz.*, Indradatta, Dahrasena and Vyāghrasena. Dahrasena performed an *Aśvamedha* and was, therefore independent; but his successor Vyāghrasena had to acknowledge the suzerainty of the Vākāṭaka king, Hariṣeṇa.

After the downfall of the Sātavāhanas the Vākāṭakas rose to power in Vidarbha. This dynasty was founded by a *Brāhmaṇa* named Vindhyaśakti I, who is mentioned in the *Purāṇas* as well as in an inscription in Cave XVI at Ajaṇṭā. The *Puraṇās* mention his son Pravīra, i.e., Pravarasena I in connection with the ruling family of Vidiśā. He ousted Śiśuka, the daughter's son of the Nāga king Vidiśā who was ruling at Purikā at the foot of the Ṛkṣavat or Sātpudā mountain. He had an extensive empire in the Deccan. He performed several Vedic sacrifices including four *Aśvamedhas* and assumed the title of *Samrāṭ* (Emperor). According to the *Purāṇas* he ruled from the aforementioned city of Purika.[2] He had four sons, among whom his extensive empire was divided after his death. Two of these are known from inscriptions. The eldest son was Gautamīputra, who predeceased him. His son Rudrasena I held the northern parts of Vidarbha and ruled from Nandivardhana, modern Nandardhan near Ramtek in the Nāgpūr district. He had the powerful support of Nāga king Bhavanāga of the Bhāraśiva family, who ruled at Padmāvatī near Gwalior, and who was his maternal grandfather. Rudrasena I was a devout worshipper of Mahābhairava. He had no regard for the *ahiṁsā* precepts of Aśoka. He had, therefore, no scruples in getting some portion of the aforementioned Devtek inscription of Aśoka's *Dharmamahāmātra* chiselled and getting his own record incised in its place. The latter proclaims the construction of his *dharmasthāna* (temple) at Chikkāmburi (modern Chikmārā near Devtek).

Rudrasena I was followed by his son Pṛthivīṣeṇa I. He ruled for a long time and brought peace and prosperity to his people. Candragupta II, the famous Gupta king of North India, appears to have sought his aid in his war with the Western Kṣatrapas of

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[1] *Ibid.*, Vol. IV.

[2] D. K. A., p. 50; Dr. Mirashi accepts Jayaswal's reading Purikam *Canakan-cavai* in place of *Purim Kancanakam-ca vai*.

Altekar mentions that Purika is connected with Vidarbha (modern Berar) and Ashmaka by ancient geographers. The Purika province is mentioned along with Vidarbha and Ashmaka in the *Markandeya Purana* (R. C. Majumdar and A. S. Altekar : *The Vakataka-Gupta Age*, p. 96).

Maḷvā and Kathiavāḍ and later cemented that political alliance by giving his daughter Prabhāvatīguptā in marriage to Pṛthivīṣeṇa's son, Rudrasena II. The latter, however, died soon after accession, leaving behind two sons Divākarasena and Dāmodarasena *alias* Pravarasena II. As neither of them had come of age, Prabhāvatīguptā acted as regent for the elder son Divākarasena for at least thirteen years[1]. She seems to have been helped in the administration of the kingdom by the military and civil officers sent by her father Candragupta II. One of these was the great Sanskṛt poet Kālidāsa, who while residing at the Vākāṭaka capital Nandivardhana, must have often visited Rāmagirī (modern Rāmṭek), where the theme of his excellent lyric *Meghadūta* seems to have suggested itself to him.

Prabhāvatīguptā has left us two copperplate grants. The earlier of them, though discovered in distant Pooṇā, originally belonged to Vidarbha. It was issued from the then capital Nandivardhana and records the dowager queen's gift of the village Daṅguṇa (modern Hiṅgaṇghāṭ) to a Brāhmaṇa after offering it to the feet of the Bhagavat (i.e. god Rāmacandra) on *Kārtika śukla dvādaśī,* evidently at the time of the *pāraṇa* after observing a fast on the previous *tithi* of *Prabodhinī Ekādaśī*[2]. Some of the boundary villages can still be traced in the vicinity of Hiṅgaṇghāṭ[3].

Divākarasena also seems to have died when quite young. He was succeeded by his brother Dāmodarasena, who on accession, assumed the name Pravarasena of his illustrious ancestor. He had a long reign of thirty years and was known for his learning and liberality. More than a dozen grants made by him have come to notice. One of them, made at the instance of his mother Prabhāvatīguptā in the nineteenth regnal year, is noteworthy. The plates recording it were issued from the feet of Rāmagirisvāmin (i.e. god Rāmacandra on the hill of Rāmagirī or Rāmṭek) and record the grant which the queen mother made as on the previous occasion after observing a fast on the *Prabodhinī Ekādaśī*[4].

Pravarasena II founded a new city, which he named Pravarapūra and where he shifted his capital some time after his eleventh regnal year. He built there a magnificent temple of Rāmacandra evidently at the instance of his mother, who was a devout worshipper of that god. Some of the sculptures used to decorate this temple, have recently been discovered at Pavnār on the bank of the Dhām, 6 miles from Wardhā and have led to the identification of Pravarapura with Pavnār[5].

[1] According to Altekar, she carried on the administration for a period of about twenty years. (R. C. Majumdar and A. S. Altekar, *The Vakataka-Gupta Age*, p. 112).

[2] Nandivardhana is most probably Nagardhan (also spelt as Nandardhan) near Ramtek, about 13 miles north of Nagpur. This city is also identified with Nandpur, 34 miles north of Nagpur (R. C. Majumdar and A. S. Altekar: *The Vakataka Gupta Age*, p. 114).

[3] Mirashi, *Inscriptions of the Vakatakas* (C.I.I., Vol. V), pp. 6 f.

[4] *Ibid.*, Vol. V, pp. 34 f.

[5] Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. II, pp. 272 f.

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Pravarasena II is the reputed author of the *Setubandha*, a Prākṛt *kāvya* in glorification of Rāmacandra. This work has been highly praised by Sanskṛt poets and rhetoricians. According to a tradition recorded by a commentator of this work, it was composed by Kālidāsa, who ascribed it to Pravarasena. The latter is also known from some Prākṛt *gāthās*, which were later incorporated in the *Gāthāsaptaśatī*[1].

Pravarasena II was succeeded by his son Narendrasena, during whose reign Vidarbha was invaded by the Nala King Bhavadattavarman. The latter penetrated as far as the Nāgpūr district and even occupied Nandivardhana, the erstwhile Vākāṭaka capital. The Ṛddhapur plates record a grant which Bhavadatta had made while on a pilgrimage to Prayāga. The plates were issued from Nandivardhana, which was evidently his capital at the time[2]. In this emergency the Vākāṭakas had to shift their capital to Padmapura near Āmgāṅv in the Bhaṇḍārā district. A fragmentary copper-plate inscription, which was proposed to be issued from Padmapura, has been discovered in the adjoining Durg district of Madhya Pradesh[3]. This Padmapura is probably identical with the birth-place of Bhavabhūti, who flourished in a later age.

The Nalas could not retain their hold over Vidarbha for a long time. They were ousted by Narendrasena's son Pṛthivīṣeṇa II, who carried the war into the enemy's territory and burnt and devastated their capital Puṣkarī, which was situated in the Bastar district of Madhya Pradesh. Pṛthivīṣeṇa, taking advantage of the weakening of Gupta power, carried his arms north of the Narmadā. Inscriptions of his feudatory Vyāghradeva have been found in the former Ajaigadh and Jaso States in Central India[4].

The elder branch of the Vākāṭaka family came to an end about A.D. 490. The territory under its rule was thereafter included in the dominion of the other or Vatsagulma branch, to which we may now turn.

The Vatsagulma branch was founded by Sarvasena, a younger son of Pravarasena I. Its capital was at Vatsagulma, modern Bāsim in the Akolā district of Vidarbha. This branch also produced some able and learned princes. Sarvasena, the founder of this branch, is well known as the author of another Prākṛt *kāvya* called *Harivijaya*, which has, for its theme, the bringing down of the *Pārijāta* tree from heaven. This *kāvya* has received unstinted praise from several eminent rhetoricians like Ānandavardhana[5].

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[1] *Ibid.*, Vol. I, pp. 81 f.

[2] *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XIX, pp. 100 f.

[3] C. I. I. Vol. V, pp. 76 f.

[4] *Ibid.*, Vol. V, pp. 89 f.

[5] Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. I, pp. 99 f.

Sarvasena was followed by his son Vindhyasena, called Vindhyaśakti (II) in the Bāsim plates which he issued in the 37th regnal year[1]. These plates record the grant of a village in the *viṣaya* (district) of Nāndīkaḍa (modern Nanded). Vindhyasena followed a vigorous policy and defeated the lord of Kuntala, who probably belonged to the Early Rāṣṭrakūṭa dynasty of Mānapura. Vindhyasena, like his father and grandfather, assumed the title of *Dharmamahārāja.* His aforementioned Bāsim plates record the earliest grant of the Vākāṭakas known so far. The genealogical portion of the grant is in Sanskṛt and the formal portion in Prākṛt. This shows how the classical language was gradually asserting itself under the patronage of the Vākāṭakas. All earlier inscriptions of the Sātavāhanas are in Prākṛt, while all later grants of the Vākāṭakas, like those of other dynasties, are in Sanskṛt.

Vindhyasena was followed by his son Pravarasena II, about whom little is known. The Ajaṇṭā inscription says that he became exalted by his excellent, powerful and liberal rule. He seems to have had a short reign ; for when he died, his son was only eight years old. The name of this boy prince is lost in the Ajaṇṭā inscription. He was followed by his son Devasena, whose fragmentary copper-plate inscription, found somewhere in South Berār, is now deposited in the India Office, London[2]. Another record of his reign, inscribed on stone, was recently discovered at Bāsim. It is dated in the *Śaka* year 380 (A.D. 455-56) and records the excavation of a tank named Sudarśana by Svāmilladeva, a servant of Devasena[3].

Devasena had a very righteous and capable minister Hastibhoja. He looked after the affairs of the State and pleased all subjects. Devasena entrusted the government of his kingdom to him and gave himself up to the enjoyment of pleasures.

Devasena was succeeded by Hariṣeṇa in *circa* A.D. 475. He carried his arms in all directions. A mutilated verse in the Ajaṇṭā inscription states that he conquered Avantī (Western Māḷvā) in the north, Kosala (Chhattisgadh), Kaliṅga and Āndhra in the east, Lāṭa (Central and Southern Gujarāt) and Trikūṭa (Nāśik district) in the west and Kuntala (Southern Marāṭhā Country) in the south[4]. He thus became the undisputed suzerain of the entire country extending from Māḷvā in the north to Kuntala in the south and from the Arabian Sea in the west to the Bay of Bengal in the east.

Hariṣeṇa is the last known Vākāṭaka king. As we have seen, he had an extensive empire in the Deccan. It crumbled soon after his death. The causes which led to the sudden disintegration of this mighty empire have not been recorded in history, but the eighth chapter of the *Daśakumāracarita* of Daṇḍin, who flourished only about 125 years after the fall of the Vākāṭakas, seems to have preserved a living tradition about the last period

[1] *C. I. I.* Vol. V, pp. 93 f.
[2] *C. I. I.* Vol. V, pp. 101 f.
[3] *Dr. Mirashi Felicitation Volume*, pp. 372 f.
[4] *C. I. I.*, Vol. V, pp. 106 f.

of Vākāṭaka rule[1]. It seems that Hariṣeṇa's son, though intelligent and accomplished in all arts, neglected the study of the science of politics (*daṇḍa-nīti*). He gave himself up to the enjoyment of pleasures and indulged in all sorts of vices, neglecting the affairs of the State. His subjects imitated him and led a vicious and dissolute life. Finding this a suitable opportunity, the crafty ruler of the neighbouring Aśmaka country, sent his minister's son to the court of Vidarbha. He ingratiated himself with the king and egged him on in his dissolute life. He also decimated his forces by various means. Ultimately, when the country was thoroughly disorganised, the ruler of Aśmaka instigated the ruler of Vanavāsī (North Kanara district) to invade Vidarbha. The king of Vidarbha called all feudatories to his aid and decided to give battle to the enemy on the bank of the Varadā (modern Wardhā). But while he was fighting with the forces of the invader, he was treacherously attacked in the rear by some of his own feudatories and was killed on the battlefield. Thus ended the Vākāṭaka kingdom after a glorious rule of two hundred and fifty years.

The Vākāṭakas were patrons of art and literature. In their age the Vaidarbhī *rīti* came to be regarded as the best style of poetry and several excellent works were then produced in Vidarbha. Some Prākṛt *kāvyas* were also produced in this period, which made the Vacchomī (Vātsagulmi) *rīti* famous. Three of the caves at Ajaṇṭā *viz.*, the two *vihāra* caves XVI and XVII and the *Caitya* cave XIX were excavated and decorated with paintings in the time of Hariṣeṇa. Several temples of Hindu gods and goddesses were also built. The ruins of one of them have come to light at Pavnār[2]. Others are known from references in copper-plate grants.

According to the *Purāṇas*, the Vākāṭaka king Pravarasena I had four sons, all of whom ruled as kings. Two of them are known from inscriptions. The eldest was Gautamīputra, whose son Rudrasena I founded the Nandivardhana branch. The second son was Sarvasena, who established himself at Vatsagulma (Bāsim in the Akolā district). Where the remaining two sons were ruling is not known definitely. But one of them may have been ruling over Southern Mahārāṣṭra. He seems to have been overthrown by Mānāṅka, the founder of the Early Rāṣṭrakūṭa dynasty. The history of this dynasty has been unfolded during the last few years. From three copper-plate grants which have been discovered in Southern Mahārāṣṭra, we get the following genealogy[3]:—

Mānāṅka
|
Devarāja
|
Māna *alias* Vibhurāja | Avidheya | Bhaviṣya
|
Abhimanyu (son of Bhaviṣya)

[1] Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. I, pp. 165 f.
[2] *Ibid.*, Vol. II, pp. 272 f.
[3] *Ibid.*, Vol. I, pp. 178 f.

Mānāṅka, the founder of this family, flourished in *circa* A. D. 350. He founded Mānapura, which he made his capital. He is described in one of the grants as the ruler of the Kuntala country. As stated before, Kuntala was the name of the upper Kṛṣṇā valley in ancient times. A copper-plate grant of his grandson Avidheya has been discovered at the village of Korocī near Kolhāpūr. It records the donation, by the Early Rāṣṭrakūṭa king Avidheya, of the village Pāṇḍaraṅgapallī to a Brāhmaṇa of the Sāmaveda on the fifth *tithi* of the dark fortnight of Kārtika in his fifteenth regnal year. Some of the villages mentioned in the grant as boundaries of the donated village can be identified in the Sātārā district.[1] Another copper-plate grant of Māna *alias* Vibhurāja of this family has been found at Hiṅgṇī Berdi in the Dhoṇḍ taluka of the Pooṇā district.[2] So these Early Rāṣṭrakūṭas were ruling over Pooṇā, Kolhāpūr, Sātārā, Sāṅglī and Solāpūr districts or over the Southern Marāṭhā country. Their capital Mānapura is probably identical with Māṇ, the headquarters of the Māṇ taluka of the Sātārā district.[3]

These Rāṣṭrakūṭas of Mānapura sometimes came into conflict with the Vākātakas of the Vatsagulma branch. The Pāṇḍaraṅgapallī grant of Avidheya states, Mānāṅka harassed the rulers of Aśmaka and Vidarbha. On the other hand, an inscription in cave XVI at Ajaṇṭā states that king Vindhyasena (*i.e.*, Vindhyaśakti II) defeated the king of Kuntala, who was evidently of this Early Rāṣṭrakūṭa family.

From certain passages in the *Kuntaleśvaradautya*, a Sanskṛt work ascribed to Kālidāsa, which have been cited in the *Kāvyamīmāṁsā* of Rājaśekhara, the *Sṛṅgāraprakāśa* and the *Sarasvatīkaṇṭhābharaṇa* of Bhoja and *Aucityavicāracarcā* of Kṣemendra, we learn that the famous Gupta king Candragupta II—Vikramāditya sent Kālidāsa to the court of the king of Kuntala. Kālidāsa was not, at first, well received there, but he gradually gained Kuntaleśa's favour and stayed at his court for some time. When he returned, he reported to Vikramāditya that the lord of Kuntala was spending his time in enjoyment, throwing the responsibility of governing his kingdom on him (i.e., Vikramāditya). This Kuntaleśa was probably identical with Devarāja. the son of Mānāṅka[4]. Through the influence of Candragupta II the two royal families of the south *viz.*, the Vākāṭakas and the Early Rāṣṭrakūṭas were reconciled with each other. Later, Hariṣeṇa, the last known Vākāṭaka king, raided Kuntala and exacted a tribute from its king. It is noteworthy that in the eight *ucchvāsa* of the *Daśakumāracarita* the king of Kuntala is described as a feudatory of the Emperor of Vidarbha.

After the downfall of the Vākāṭakas, Kuntala seems to have been occupied for some time by the Viṣṇukuṇḍin king Mādhavavarman I. He had married a Vākāṭaka princess who was probably a daughter or some near relative of the Vākāṭaka king

[1] *Loc. cit.*
[2] *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XXIX, pp. 174 f.
[3] Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. I, p. 184.
[4] *Ibid.*, Vol. I, p. 187.

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Harisena. Taking advantage of the opportunity that had presented itself by the downfall of the Vākāṭakas, he extended his dominion far and wide. He performed no less than eleven *Aśvamedhas* and thus attained a position of unquestioned supremacy in the Deccan. He is known to have overrun Dakṣiṇa Kosala or Chhattisgadh and occupied the capital (Śrīpura) of Trivara (*i.e.* Tīvaradeva). That he had annexed Mahārāṣṭra also can be conjectured from the description of his grandson Mādhavavarman II in the Ipur plates as the lord of Trikūṭa and Malaya. Trikūṭa is the well-known name of the hill which borders the Nāśik district on the west. Malaya is equally well-known as the name of the southern portion of the Western Ghāṭs. A copper-plate grant of this Mādhavavarman has been found at Khānāpūr, the chief town of the Khānāpur taluka of the Sāṅglī district. It records the donation, by Mādhavavarman I, of the village Reṭṭuraka (modern Reṭhare Budruk) to the south-east of the Kṛṣṇaveṇā (*i.e.* the Kṛṣṇā). The boundary villages mentioned in the grant can also be identified in the vicinity of Reṭhare Budruk[1].

The Viṣṇukuṇḍins, who had their capital at Veṅgī in the Āndhra country could not retain Southern Mahārāṣṭra for a long time. It was probably reconquered by the Rāṣṭrakūṭas. Northern Mahārāṣṭra was occupied by the Kalacuris of Mahiṣmatī, modern Maheśvar in Central India. They also had a large empire extending from Koṅkaṇ in the west to Vidarbha in the east and from Māḷvā in the north to the Kṛṣṇā in the south. The founder of this family was Kṛṣṇarāja, whose coins have been found all over this territory. He established the Mauryas as his feudatories in Koṅkaṇ. That Vidarbha was included in his empire is shown by the Nagardhan plates of his feudatory Svāmirāja dated in the Kalacuri year 322 (A.D. 573). These plates were issued from Nandivardhana, which seems to have maintained its importance even after the downfall of the Vākāṭakas. Svāmirāja probably belonged to the Rāṣṭrakūṭa family.

Kṛṣṇarāja was succeeded by his son Śaṅkaragaṇa, whose copper-plate grant has been discovered at Ābhoṇa in the Nāśik district. It is dated in the Kalacuri year 347 (A.D. 597). His other inscriptions have been discovered in Gujarāt. He was succeeded by his son Buddharāja, who was involved in a fight with the Cālukya king Maṅgaleśa on the southern frontier of his kingdom. Before we describe this engagement, we must briefly review the history of the Early Cālukyas of Badāmī.

The Cālukyas of Badāmī rose to power in the first half of the sixth century A.D. The Badāmī stone inscription of Pulakeśin I, who is the first independent ruler of this dynasty, is dated in A.D. 543[2]. He performed the *Aśvamedha* and several other *Śrauta* sacrifies. He was succeeded by his son Kīrtivarman I,

[1] *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XXVII, pp. 312 f.

[2] *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XXVII, pp. 4 f.

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who made some conquests in South India and is described as the night of destruction to the Nalas (of the Bastar district), the Mauryas (of Koṅkaṇ) and the Kadambas (of Vanavāsī in North Kanara).

When Kīrtivarman I died, his son Pulakeśin II was a minor. So his younger brother Maṅgaleśa succeeded him. He defeated Buddharāja, the Kalacuri king, who was ruling in North Mahārāṣṭra, Gujarāt and Māḷvā and also Svāmirāja of the Cālukya family, who was ruling over Revatīdvīpa (modern Reḍī in the Ratnāgirī district).

Maṅgaleśa's reign ended in disaster and he lost his life in a civil war with his nephew Pulakeśin II. Just about this time the Cālukya kingdom was invaded from the north by one Govinda, who probably belonged to the aforementioned Early Rāṣṭrakūṭa family. Pulakeśin adopted conciliatory measures in dealing with him as he was a powerful king. His descendants do not, however, appear to have held Southern Mahārāṣṭra for a long time; for Pulakeśin soon annexed both Southern and Northern Mahārāṣṭra and extended the northern limit of his empire to the Narmadā. That he ousted the Raṣṭrakūṭas from Southern Mahārāṣṭra is shown by the Sātārā plates of his brother Viṣṇuvardhana, which record the grant of a village on the southern bank of the Bhīma. Pulakeśin also defeated the Kalacuri king Buddharāja and annexed his kingdom. He is said to have thereby become the lord of three Mahārāṣṭras, *viz*., Northern Mahārāṣṭra, Vidarbha and Southern Mahārāṣṭra or Kuntala. The Raṣṭrakūṭas of Vidarbha, who were previously feudatories of the Kalacuris, transferred their allegiance to the Cālukyas and like the latter, began to date their records in the *Śaka* era. Two grants of this feudatory Rāṣṭrakūṭa family have been found in Vidarbha—one dated *Śaka* 615 was found near Akolā and the other dated *Śaka* 631 was discovered at Multai in the Betūl district of Madhya Pradesh.[1] They give the following genealogy:—

Durgarāja
|
Govindarāja
|
Svāmikarājā
|
Nannarāja *alias* Yuddhāsura

Pulakeśin obtained a resounding victory over Harṣa, the lord paramount of North India. Thereafter, he assumed the title of *Parameśvara* (Emperor). He defeated the rulers of several countries such as Aparānta (North Koṅkaṇ), Kosala (Chhattisgadh), Kaliṅga (Orissa), Piṣṭapura (Pīthāpuram) and Kāñcī (Conjiveram). He made the Colas, the Keralas and the Pāṇḍyas his allies. He thus became the undisputed lord of South India.

During the reign of Pulakeśin I the Chinese pilgrim Hiuen Tsang visited Mahārāṣṭra. He has left us the following graphic

[1] *Ibid.*, Vol. XXIX, pp. 109 f., *Ind. Ant.*, Vol. XVIII, pp. 230 f.

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picture of the country and its people[1]—"The soil is rich and fertile. The climate is hot; the disposition of the people is honest and simple; they are tall of stature and of a stern vindictive character. To their benefactors they are grateful; to their enemies relentless. If they are insulted, they will risk their lives to avenge themselves. If they are asked to help one in distress, they will forget themselves in their haste to render assistance. If they are going to seek revenge, they first give their enemy a warning; then, each being armed, they attack each other with spears. If a general loses a battle, they do not inflict punishment, but present him with women's clothes, and so he is driven to seek dath for himself. Each time they are about to engage in conflict, they intoxicate themselves with wine, and then one man with a lance in hand will meet ten thousand and challenge them to fight. .. .Moreover, they inebriate many hundred heads of elephants, which, rushing forward in mass, trample everything down so that no enemy can stand before them. The king, in consequence of possessing these men and elephants, treats his neighbours with contempt. He is of the Kṣatriya caste and his name is Pulakeśi."

Pulakeśin was killed in battle at Badāmī in *circa* A. D. 642 by the Pallava king Narasiṁhavarman, who conquered Vatāpi (Badāmī) and assumed the title of Vātapikoṇḍa.

Vikramāditya I, who succeeded Pulakeśin, appointed his younger brother Dharāśraya-Jayasiṁha to govern South Gujarāt, North Koṅkaṇ and the Nāśik district. Dharāśraya placed his elder son in charge of Gujarāt and appointed the other son Maṅgalarāja to govern North Koṅkaṇ. Later, a family claiming descent from Hariścandra was ruling over North Koṅkaṇ and the Nāśik district.

During the reign of Vikramāditya II, a descendant of Pulakeśin II, Gujarāt was invaded by a formidable force of the Tājikas (Arabs). The Navsārī plates of Avanijanaśraya Pulakeśin, the youngest son of Dharāśraya-Jayasiṁha, give a graphic account of this battle. The Arabs had already defeated the Saindhavas, the Cāvoṭakas, the Surāṣṭras, the Mauryas and the Gurjaras and were attempting to penetrate into the Dakṣiṇapatha (Deccan), but Avanijanāśraya-Pulakeśin inflicted a crushing defeat on the invaders. The Calukya Emperor then honoured Avanijanāśraya with several titles, one of which was *Anivaralaka-nivartayitṛ* (the Repeller of the unrepellable).[2]

Kīrtivarman II, the last of these Early Calukyas, was defeated by the Rāṣṭrakūṭa prince Dantidurga some time before A. D. 754, when he issued the Samangad plates. Kīrtivarman continued to rule for a few years more, but he had lost the paramount position in the Deccan.

[1] S. Beal, *Buddhist Records of the Western World* (pub. by Sushil Gupta), Vol. IV pp. 448 f.

[2] *C. I. I.*, Vol. IV, pp. 138 f.

The Cālukyas of Badāmī were known for their patronage to architecture and sculpture. They got several caves excavated at Badāmī and decorated them with the sculptures of Hindu deities and also built temples at Paṭṭadakal and other places. The Elephaṇṭā caves near Bombay are by some scholars referred to their age ; but they are more likely to have been excavated by their predecessors the Early Kalacuris, who were devout worshippers of Maheśvara and patronised the *Pāśupata* sect of Śaivism.[1]

Dantidurga was the real founder of the Rāṣṭrakūṭa Imperial power[2]. His Ellorā cave inscription mentions five ancestors beginning with Dantivarman, but we know nothing about them. The family probably belonged to the Auraṅgābād district, where its earliest records have been found. The earlier members of the family were probably feudatories of the Early Cālukyas. Dantivarman made extensive conquests. The Ellorā cave inscription records his victories over the rulers of Kāñcī, Kaliṅga, Śrīśaila, Mālava, Ṭaṅka and Lāṭa. But these do not all seem to have resulted in the acquisition of territory. His war elephants are said to have rent as under the banks of the Mahānadī, the Mahī and the Revā. Though there is much exaggeration in the description of his conquests there is no doubt that he conquered Karnāṭaka, Mahārāṣṭra, Vidarbha and Gujarāt.

Dantidurga was succeeded by his uncle Kṛṣṇa I, who completed the conquests and shattered the power of the Early Cālukyas. He was not only a great conqueror but also a great builder. He got the great Śiva temple at Ellorā, originally called Kṛṣṇeśvara, but now known as Kailāsa, cut out of solid rock. It is one of the noblest monuments of India. A contemporary inscription tells us that the great architect who excavated it was himself surprised to see it finished and despaired of repeating the feat.

The Rāṣṭrakūṭa family produced several great conquerors, who boldly invaded North and South India and achieved memorable victories. Dhruva *alias* Dhārāvarṣa (A.D. 780-793) was the first among them. He defeated both the Gurjara Pratīhāra king Vatsarāja and the Pāla king Dharmapāla, who were contending for supremacy in North India and pressed as far as the Doab. Since then the two sacred rivers Gaṅgā and Yamunā began to appear on the Rāṣṭrakūṭa banner.

Govinda III, the son and successor of Dhruva, proved to be a still greater conqueror. After obtaining an easy victory over the Gaṅga king Muttarasa ruling in Gaṅgavāḍī, he led victorious campaigns in Central and North India. He first defeated the Gurjara-Pratīhāra king Nagabhaṭa II and his ally Candragupta in Central India and then routed Dharmapāla of Bengal, who had espoused the cause of Cakrāyudha of Kanauj. He next marched victoriously to the north until his horses drank and his elephants plunged thmselves into the spring waters of the

[1] *Ibid.*, Vol. IV, Introduction, pp. cxlvii. f.

[2] Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. II, pp. 16 f.

Himālayas. He then returned to the Narmadā and marching along the bank of the river, he conquered the Mālava, Kosala, Kaliṅga, Vaṅga, Ḍāhala, and Oḍra countries. He next spent the rainy season at Śrībhavana (modern Sarbhon in Gujarāt) and afterwards marched with his forces to the bank of the Tuṅgabhadrā. Using Alampūra (or Relāpūra) on the bank of the river as his base, he led his campaigns against the Keraḷas, the Colas, the Pāṇḍyas and the Pallavas. Even the king of Laṅkā submitted to him, sending two statues—one of himself and the other of his minister—to his camp at Helāpūra[1].

Govinda III was succeeded by his son Śarva-Amoghavarṣa I, who was a man of peaceful disposition, but whose reign was full of troubles. He had first to fight with the Eastern Cālukyas of Veṅgī, the Gaṅgas of Gaṅgavāḍī and his own relatives in Gujarāt. He loved and encouraged science and literature and treated all religions with equal reverence. He voluntarily retired from public administration to engage himself in religious pursuits. On one occasion he offered a finger of his hand to the Goddess Mahālakṣmī of Kolhāpūr to ward off a public calamity[2]. Such instances are rare in the history of any country.

Another noteworthy king of the Rāṣṭrakūṭa family was Indra III, the great-grandson of Amoghavarṣa I. Like his illustrious ancestors Dhruva and Govinda III, Indra also led victorious campaigns in North India. He followed the route of Bhopāl, Jhānsī and Kālpī in the course of his invasion of Kanauj, the Imperial capital of India for more than three hundred years. At Kālpī his army was encamped in the courtyard of the temple of Kalapriyanātha, well-known to Sanskṛtists as the place where all the plays of the Sanskṛt dramatist Bhavabhūti were staged[3]. His horses crossed the Yamunā at Kālpī and then marched on Kanauj, which he completely devastated. The Gurjara-Pratihāra king Mahipala fled to Mahoba to seek the help of his Candella feudatory Harṣa. Indra III's northern campaign was a memorable event unparalleled for its brilliance in the history of the Rāṣṭrakūṭas.

Indra III was succeeded by his son Amoghavarṣa II, who died within a year and was succeeded by Govinda IV. He was known for his liberality and rightly had the *birūda Suvarṇavarṣa* (the gold-rainer). On the occasion of his coronation he donated six hundred *agrahāra* villages and three lakhs of gold coins to Brāhmaṇas, and eight hundred villages and four lakhs of gold coins and thirty-two lakhs of silver coins (*drammas*) to temples. A copper-plate grant of him found at Sāṅglī, which was issued from the capital Mānyakheṭa and dated *Śaka* 855 (A.D. 933) records the donation by him of the village Lohagrāma in the Rāmapurī 700 to a Brāhmaṇa who had emigrated from Puṇḍravardhana[4].

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[1] *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XXXII, pp. 157 f.
[2] *Ibid.*, Vol. XVIII, p. 248.
[3] *Studies in Indology*, Vol. I, pp. 35 f.
[4] *Ind. Ant.*, Vol. XII, pp. 249 f.

The Rāṣṭrakūṭas of Mānyakheṭa (modern Malkhed) and the Kalacuris of Tripurī (Tewar near Jabalpūr) were matrimonially connected and their relations were generally cordial. But in the reign of Govinda IV they became strained. The Kalacuri king Yuvarājadeva I espoused the cause of his son-in-law Baḍḍiga-Amoghavarṣa III, the uncle of Govinda IV, and sent a large army to invade the Rāṣṭrakūṭa dominion. When the army reached the Payoṣṇī (modern Purṇā), a pitched battle was fought near Acalapūra, between the Kalacuri and Rāṣṭrakūṭa forces, in which the former became victorious. This event is commemorated in the Sanskṛt play *Viddhaśālabhañjikā* of Rājaśekhara, which was staged at Tripurī in jubilation at this victory[1].

The Rāṣṭrakūṭa feudatories who rose in rebellion against Govinda IV deposed him and placed his uncle Baḍḍiga-Amoghavarṣa III on the throne. He was a man of quiet nature and spiritual temperament, who left the administration entirely to his ambitious and able son Kṛṣṇa III. Like some of his illustrious ancestors, Kṛṣṇa also led an expedition to North India and captured the forts of Kālañjara and Citrakūṭa. He succeeded his father in A.D. 939. He then led an expedition against the Colas and defeated them in a sanguinary battle at Takkolam in the North Arcot district. He next led his victorious arms to Rāmeśvaram, where he built two temples. Hearing of his resounding victories, the kings of Kerala, Pāṇḍya and Ceylon submitted to him. He also placed his own nominee on the throne of Veṅgī. He became thus the lord paramount of the whole of South India.

The Rāṣṭrakūṭa power became weak after the death of Kṛṣṇa III. Within six years his large empire crumbled like a house of cards. Taila II, the founder of the Later Cālukya dynasty, who was a *Mahāsāmanta* of the Rāṣṭrakūṭas, suddenly came into prominence. He defeated and killed in battle Karka II, the last Rāṣṭrakūṭa king, and captured his capital Mānyakheṭa. He had to fight against the Colas, the Pāṇḍyas and the Paramāras. The Paramāra king Vakpati-Muñja planned to invade the Cālukya dominion, but his wise minister Rudrāditya advised him not to cross the Godāvarī, which was the boundary between the Cālukya and Paramāra dominions. Muñja did not heed his advice and was taken captive by Tailapa. He was placed in a prison where he was waited upon by Tailapa's sister Mṛṇālavatī. He fell in love with her and foolishly disclosed to her the plan of his escape. She communicated it to Tailapa, who is said to have made him beg from door to door and then beheaded him.

Some inscriptions of the Later Cālukyas have been found either in the Sāṅglī district or the adjoining territory. Thus the Kauṭhe plates[2] of Vikramāditya V, the grandson of Taila II, dated *Śaka* 930 (A.D. 1009), were issued by the king from

[1] *C. I. I.*, Vol. IV, Introduction, pp. lxxviii f.
[2] *Ind. Ant.*, Vol. XVI, pp. 21 f.

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Koṭitīrtha at Kolhāpūr and record the grant of the village Koddasi in the Kuṇḍideśa (Belgaṁv district) to a Brāhmaṇa of the Yajurveda. Another copper-plate grant found at Miraj[1], dated in the *Śaka* 946 (A.D. 1024), which was issued from near Kolhāpūr, registers the donation of the village Madadujhuru to a Brāhmaṇa of *Ṛgveda* which was made by the aforementioned Vikramāditya's brother Jayasiṁha II.

Among later kings of this Cālukya family the most famous is Vikramāditya VI, the founder of the Cālukya-Vikrama Saṁvat. He ascended the throne in A.D. 1076. He had to fight against the Colas, the Cālukyas of Gujarāt and the Hoysaḷas and he signally defeated them. He also led an expedition against Veṅgi. He married a princess named Candralekhā, who belonged to the Kolhāpūr branch of the Śilāhāras. In the *Vikramāṅkadevacarit* Bilhaṇa has drawn a graphic picture of this princess and has described her *svayaṁvara* held at Karahāṭa (*i.e.* Karhāḍ)[2]. It is said to have been attended by well-known rulers of all parts of India, *viz.*, those of Cedi, Kānyakubja, Kāliñjara, Mālava, Gurjara, Pāṇḍya, Cola and others. Bilhaṇa's description is after the model in Kālidāsa's *Raghuvaṁśā*, Canto VI, and deserves little credence. But that Vikramāditya had married a Śilāhāra princess of unrivalled beauty was known in distant Kashmīr. In the *Rājataraṅgiṇī* Kalhaṇa describes how when Harṣa, the king of Kashmīr, saw a portrait of Candalā (*i.e.*, Candralekhā) the beautiful wife of the Karṇāṭa king Parmāṇḍi (*i.e.* Vikramāditya VI), he became smitten with love. He vowed in the open court that he would obtain Candalā after overthrowing Parmāṇḍi. He even took the vow that he would not use unboiled camphor till then. Kalhaṇa holds the king to ridicule for his foolishness[3].

The princess must have been the daughter of one of the uncles of the Śilāhāra king Marasiṁha, who was governing Karahāṭa. Bilhaṇa has not named her father. He only states that he was ruling at Karahāṭa and was therefore probably a provincial governor.

Vikramāditya's reign is renowned on account of some learned men who flourished at his court. Balhaṇa who was patronised by him, wrote the *Vikramāṅkadevacarita*, which is his poetical biography. Another famous author who flourished at his court was Vijñāneśvara, the author of the well-known commentary *Mitākṣarā*, on the *Yājñavalkya-smṛti*.

The decline of the Cālukya power commenced soon after the reign of Vikramāditya VI. Taila III, the last Cālukya king, was overthrown by the Kalacuri Bijjala, who was his Commander-in-Chief, in A.D. 1157. The Kalacuri usurpation lasted for about two decades. Bijjala's reign is noted for the rise of the Liṅgāyat sect.

[1] *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XII, pp. 309 f.

[2] Cantos VIII and IX.

[3] *Rajatarangini*, Taranga VII, vv. 1119 f.

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In the time of these Later Cālukyas a branch of the Śilāhāras established itself in the Southern Marāṭhā Country. Like the other two Śilāhāra families ruling in North and South Koṅkaṇ, this family also traced its descent from Jimūtavāhana and had the standard of the Golden Eagle. Like the family ruling over North Koṅkaṇ this family originally hailed from the town of Tagara, modern Ter in the Osmānābād district. Its tutelary deity was Mahālakṣmī of Kolhāpūr, whose boon its members claim in the grants to have secured. Inscriptions mention three capitals of this family *viz.* Vaḷavāḍa now called Rādhānagarī, Kolhāpūr and the hill fort of Kiḷigila or Praṇālaka (modern Panhāḷā, 12 miles to the north-west of Kolhāpūr).

The genealogy of the family may be stated as follows[1]:—

- Jatiga I (*c.* A.D. 940—960)
  - Nāyivarman (*c.* A.D. 960—980)
    - Candra (*c.* A.D. 980—1000)
      - Jatiga II (*c.* A.D. 1000—1020)
        - Goṅka (*c.* A.D. 1020—1050)
          - Mārasiṁha (*c.* A.D. 1050—1075)
            - Gūvala II (*c.* A.D. 1075—1100)
            - Goṅka
            - Ballāḷa
            - Bhoja I
            - Gaṇḍarāditya (*c.* A.D. 1100—1140)
              - Vijayāditya (*c.* A.D. 1140—1175)
                - Bhoja II (*c.* A.D. 1175—1215).
        - Gūvala
        - Kīrtirāja Candrāditya

In the beginning Jatiga I may have acknowledged the suzerainty of the Rāṣṭrakūṭa Emperor Kṛṣṇa III (A.D. 939-967), but after his death when the power of the Rāṣṭrakūṭas declined, the successors of Jatiga I seem to have thrown off their yoke.

Goṅka, the son and successor of Jatiga II is described in the grant of his son Mārasiṁha, as the ruler of Karahāṭa-Kuṇḍi region. Karahāṭa is modern Karhāḍ in the Sātārā district, while Kuṇḍi was some part of the Belgāṅv district. He is also described as the ruler of the Miriñja-deśa and the whole of the large country of Koṅkaṇ. Miriñja is of course Miraj in the Sāṅglī district[2].

One of the noteworthy king of this family was Gaṇḍarāditya who is known from several grants. He claims to be the sole ruler of the Miriñja-deśa together with seven *khollas* and also the country of Koṅkaṇ. He constructed a tank which he named Gaṇḍasamudra near the village of Irukuḍi. He built the temples

[1] The years of reign mentioned in the table are approximate.

[2] *Cave Temples of Western India*, pp. 101 f.

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of all the three religions Hindu, Buddhist and Jain on its bank[1]. In another grant the king, in response to the request of the minister Mailapayyā, donated lands for the temple of the god Khedāditya at Brahmapurī, a suburb of Kolhāpūr.[2]

Gaṇḍarāditya was succeeded by his son Vijayāditya in A. D. 1140. He appears to have taken an active part in the conspiracy to depose the Later Cālukya king Tailapa III. It is said that with his help Bijjala got the sovereignty. He is also said to have reinstated the deposed ruler of Sthānaka, who was probably the Śilahara king Aparāditya.

Vijayaditya was succeeded by his son Bhoja II, the last and the greatest ruler of this line. On account of his great valour he obtained the name of Virabhoja. He assumed Imperial titles *Rājadhirāja*, *Parameśvara*, *Paramabhaṭṭāraka* and *Paścima-Cakravarti*.[3] This could not be tolerated by the Yādavas who were then establishing their sovereignty. Siṅghaṇa, the mighty Yadava king of Devagirī, invaded the Śilāhāra kingdom and laid siege to the fort of Praṇala (Panhāḷā). He defeated Bhoja and put him into prison in the fort.

Like their brethren of North Koṅkaṇ, the Śilāharas of Kolhapūr also extended their patronage to learned men. One of these was Somadeva, the author of *Śabdarṇavacandrikā*, a work of Jainendra Vyākaraṇa.

In the last quarter of the twelfth century A. D. the Yādavas of Devagiri came into prominence. They had previously been ruling over Seuṇadeśa (Khāndeś) in an earlier period as feudatories of the Calukyas, but Bhillama, the son of Mallugi, declared his independence and made himself master of the whole territory north of the Kṛṣṇā. He then founded the city of Devagirī, which he made his capital. His son Jaitrapāla killed Rudradeva of the Kākatīya dynasty on the field of battle and released his nephew whom he had put into prison. Under Jaitrapāla's son Siṅghaṇa the power of the family greatly increased. We get considerable information about his victories from the four stone inscriptions of his general Kholeśvara at Aṁbejogāī in the Biḍ district. Kholeśvara was a native of Vidarbha, but was residing at Aṁbe, where he has left his inscriptions. Some more details are furnished by a later copper-plate grant of Rāmacandra found at Puruṣottampurī in the Biḍ district.[4]

Siṅghana achieved several victories. He defeated the Hovsaḷa king Vīra-Ballāḷa, the Kākatīya king Gaṇapati and Lakṣmīdhara, the lord of Bambhāgiri, modern Bhāmer in Dhulia district. He confined Bhoja II of the Śilāhāra family on the hiḷl of Praṇāḷā, i.e., Panhāḷā, about 12 miles to the north-west of Kolhāpūr. Most of these victories were won by his Brāhmaṇa general Kholeśvara.

[1] *J. B B. R. A. S.*, Vol. XIII, pp. 1 f.

[2] *Ep Ind.*, Vol. XXIII, pp. 28 f.

[3] *Ind. Ant.*, Vol. X, p. 76 n. 1.

[4] *Ep. Ind* Vol. XXV, pp. 199 f.

The latter vanquished also Arjunavarmadeva, king of Māḷvā, and even pressed as far north as Vārāṇasī, where he put Rāmapāḷa to fight. Kholeśvara constructed several temples in Vidarbha and also established *agrahāras* on the banks of the Payoṣṇī and the Varadā. The former *agrahāra* still exists under the name of Kholāpūr in the Amarāvatī district.

Siṅghaṇa was succeeded by his grandson Kṛṣṇa, who obtained victories over the kings of Gurjara, Mālava, Cola and Kosala. The Gurjara king was Vīsaladeva and the Mālava ruler was Jaitugideva. The contemporary Cola king was Rājendra III (A.D. 1246—1279). The Kosala king was evidently the contemporary ruler of Ratanpūr in Chhattisgadh, who was probably the successor of Jajalladeva defeated by Siṅghaṇa, but no records of his reign have yet been recovered. An inscription of the reign of Kṛṣṇa has been found in the temple of Khaṇḍeśvara in the Amarāvatī district. It is dated in the *Śaka* year 1177 (A.D. 1254-55) and records the donations of some *gadyaṇakas* for the offerings of flowers in the temple of Khaṇḍeśvara[1].

Kṛṣṇa was succeeded by his brother Mahādeva. From the recently discovered Kalegāṅv plates[2] we know the exact date of his coronation as 29th August A.D. 1261. The most notable event of his reign was the annexation of North Koṅkaṇ after defeating Someśvara of the Śilahara dynasty. Mahādeva left the throne to his son Āmaṇa, but the latter was soon deposed by Kṛṣṇa's son Rāmacandra, who captured the impregnable fort of Devagirī by means of a *coup d'etat*[3]. He won several victories mentioned in the Puruṣottampurī plates dated in the *Śaka* year 1232 (A.D. 1310). He is said to have defeated with ease the ruler of Ḍāhala (*i.e.* Cedi country), subjugated the ruler of Bhāṇḍāgāra (Bhaṇḍārā) and dethroned the king of Vajrākara (modern Vairāgaḍh). He is further credited with a victory over the Muhammedans, whom he drove out of Vārāṇasī. He built there a golden temple dedicated to Śārṅgapāṇi (Viṣṇu). His minister Puruṣottama received from him the grant of four villages, which he formed into an *agrahāra* and donated it to several Brāhmaṇas on the day of the *Kapilaṣaṣṭhī* in the *Śaka* year 1232. The *agrahāra* was named Puruṣottamapūra after the donor. It is still extant under the original name on the southern bank of the Godāvarī, about 40 miles due west from Parbhaṇī. The villages together with their boundaries can still be identified in the vicinity of Puruṣottampurī[4].

A fragmentary inscription of the time of Rāmacandra is built into the front wall of the temple of Lakṣmaṇa on the hill of Rāmṭek. In the first half it gives the genealogy of Rāmacandra and in the second half it describes the temples, wells and

[1] *Ibid.*, Vol. XXVII, pp. 9 f.
[2] *Ibid.*, Vol. XXXII, pp. 31 f.
[3] *Ibid.*, Vol. XXV, p. 205.
[4] *Ibid.*, Vol. XXV, p. 208.

tirthas on and in the vicinity of the hill which it names as Ramagirī. The object of the inscription seems to have been to record the repairs to the temple of Lakṣmaṇa, done by Rāghava, a minister of Rāmacandra.

In A.D. 1294, Alā-ud-din Khiljī invaded the kingdom of Ramacandra and suddenly appeared before the gates of Devagiri. Ramacandra was taken unawares and could not hold out long. He had to pay a large ransom to the Muslim consueror. He continued, however, to rule till A.D. 1310 at least; for the aforementioned Puruṣottampuri plates are dated in that year. He was succeeded by his son Śaṅkaradeva some time in A.D. 1311. He discontinued sending the stipulated tribute to Delhi. He was then defeated and slain by Malik Kāfur. Some time thereafter, Harapaladeva, the son-in-law of Rāmacantra, raised an insurrection and drove away the Muhammedans, but his success was short-lived. The Hindu kingdom of Devagiri thus came to an end in A.D. 1318.

Like their illustrious predecessors, the Yādavas also extended liberal patronage to art and literature. During their rule a peculiar style of architecture called Hemādpantī after Hemādri or Hemādpant, minister of Mahādeva and Rāmacandra, came into vogue. Temples built in this style are found in all the districts of Mahārāṣtra. Several learned scholars flourished at the Yādava court. Of them Hemādri was the foremost. During the reign of Mahādeva he held the post of *Śrīkaraṇadhipa* or Head of the Secretariat. He was appointed Minister and Head of the Elephant force by Rāmacandra. He was as brave as he was learned and liberal. He conquered and annexed to the Yādava kingdom the eastern part of Vidarbha called Jhāḍī-maṇḍala. Hemādri is well-known as the author of the *Caturvarga-cintāmaṇī*, comprising five parts, *viz.*, (1) *Vratakhaṇda*, (2) *Dānakhaṇḍ*, (3) *Tirthkhaṇḍa*, (4) *Mokṣakhaṇḍa* and (5) *Pariseṣakhaṇda*. Of these the third and fourth *khaṇḍas* have not yet come to light. Hemādri's work is held in great esteem and has been drawn upon by later writers on *Dharmaśāstra*. Hemādri wrote on other subjects as well. He is the author of a commentary on Śaunaka's *Praṇavakalpa* and also of a *Śrāddhakalpa*, in which he follows Kātyāyana. His *Āyurvedarasāyana*, a commentary on Vāgbhaṭa's *Aṣṭāṅgahṛdaya* and *Kaivalyadipika*, a gloss on Bopadeva's *Muktāphala* are also well-known.

Hemādri extended liberal patronage to learned men. Among his proteges the most famous was Bopadeva. He was a native of Vedapada (modern Bedod) on the bank of the Wardhā in the Adilābād district of Andhra Pradesh. Bopadeva is said to have composed ten works on Sanskṛt grammar, nine on medicine, one for the determination of *tithis*, three on poetics and an equal number for the elucidation of the Bhāgavata doctrine. Only eight of these are now extant. The *Mugdhabodha*, his work on Sanskṛt grammar, is very popular in Beṅgal.

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Marāṭhī literature also flourished in the age of the Yādavas. Cakradhara, who propagated the Mahānubhāva cult in that age, used Marāṭhī as the medium of his religious teachings. Following his example, several of his followers composed literary works in Marāṭhī. They are counted among the first works of Marāṭhī literature. Mukundarāja, the author of the Vedantic works *Vivekasindhu* and *Paramāmṛta*, and Jñānadeva, the celebrated author of the *Bhāvārthadīpikā*, a commentary on the *Bhagavadgitā*, are the most illustrious writers of that age.

MEDIAEVAL PERIOD.

The Muslims first appeared in the Deccan in the reign of Jalāl-ud-din-Khiljī, whose nephew Alā-ud-din invaded the kingdom of Devagirī and subjugated it. This invasion was followed by another three invasions once by Alā-ud-din when he usurped the Delhī throne and twice by his general Malik Kāfur because the king of Devagirī though defeated never fully yielded to the Muslim power in the north. The Tughluqs were more domineering than their predecessors. Muhammad Tughluq made Devagirī his capital and changed its name to Daulatābād in 1327. The Deccan passed under the over-lordship of the Delhī emperors. The Tughluq domination was however short-lived and soon the officers appointed by the Delhī emperors showed signs of revolt. The early attempts to throw the Tughluq yoke were suppressed ruthlessly. However, the revolt of the Deccan nobles in 1347, first under the leadership of Abul Fath Nasir-ud-din Ismāīl Śāh and then under the leadership of Zafar Khān succeeded in overthrowing the Tughluq domination. A new dynasty was established by Zafar Khān *alias* Hasan Gaṅgu Bahaman Śāh.

Bahamanis.

Bahaman Śāh, to begin with, had in his possession the *jāgīr* territory which centred round Mubārakābād, Miraj, Hukkeri and Belgāṅv along with certain other towns. Bahaman Śāh was an ambitious ruler and he desired the conquest not only of those parts of the Deccan which were under some rebellious chiefs but also of Delhī itself. His minister Ghorī dissuaded him from such an ambitious venture and advised him to consolidate his gains in the Deccan and to suppress the rebellious chiefs. With this objective Bahaman Śāh sent his nobles in different directions. The army of Miraj was ordered to proceed to Gulbargā under Ain-ud-din Khvājā Jahān. The campaigns were crowned with success. Bahaman Śāh himself left Miraj to quell rebellion at Sāgar, and returned to Miraj where he stayed for a few months and from thence he returned to his capital at Gulbargā. In the last years of his reign the Sultān undertook expeditions to the Koṅkaṇ, camping at Miraj and on his way back captured Dābhoḷ, Karhāḍ and Kolhāpūr. Bahaman Śāh died on 11th February 1358[1]. At the time of his death his territory extended from Maṇḍu in the north to Rāicūr in the south and from Bhoṅgīr in the east to Dābhoḷ and Goā in the west. Bahaman Śāh had divided his kingdom into four large

[1] Some are of the view that he died on 31st January 1359 (S. A. Q. Husaini: *Bahaman Shah*, p. 125).

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divisions each with a governor as its executive head. Sāṅglī district formed part of the Ahasanābād Gulbargā division with Malik Saif-ud-din Ghori as its administrator. Bahaman Śāh took precautions against the revolts and therefore gave the Governorships to his very close relatives or those who commanded his confidence. Thus Malik Saif-ud-din whose daughter was the wife of the heir apparent was made the Governor of the province of Gulbargā and Malik Saif-ud-din's son, Azam-i-Humāyun that of Bidar[1].

Muhammad Śāh succeeded Alā-ud-din Hasan Bahaman Śāh in 1358. Muhammad on the advice of his chief minister Malik Saif-ud-din Ghorī undertook the task of reorganising the kingdom. He continued the administrative divisions of the territory ushered in by his father. The Gulbargā division which included the district of Sāṅglī was regarded as an important charge. It was given to one who commanded the king's confidence. The provincial governor was called the *Malik Nāib* or viceroy. During this period the use of gunpowder and cannon, revolutionised the mode of war and methods of defence. It appears that most of the forts in the district and round about were probably built to suit the new technique of war. Barring the wars of the Bahamanis with Vijayanagar and Telaṅgaṇa, the reign of Muhammad Śāh was peaceful. The Sultān used to tour round the provinces every year. Feriśta says that towards the end of his reign every one in the kingdom was happy and prosperous. Mahummad Śāh died in 1375.

The reigns of the two Sultāns who succeeded Muhammad Śāh, namely, Mujahid and Daud I were short-lived and inconsequential. Mujāhid ascended the throne in 1375 but was murdered in 1378. Daud's accession took place on 16-4-1378 and he died on 21-5-1378.[2] Dāud was succeeded by Bahaman Śāh's grandson Muhammad on 21-5-1378. The reign of Muhammad II was more or less peaceful. The kingdom was ravaged by the famous Durgā Devī famine during 1387 and 1395. A succession of years without rains gave the country a desolate appearance and whole districts were deserted by the people. Muhammad Śāh died on 20-4-1397 and was succeeded by Ghiyās-ud-din Tahamatan (20-4-1397—14-6-1397) and Śams-ud-din Dāud II (14-6-1397—16-11-1397) in that order. These twenty years of the Bahamani rule from the accession of Mujāhid Śāh in 1375 till the death of Dāud Śāh II in 1397 though marked by turmoil, unrest and regicides was noted for the progressive and cultured reign of Muhammad II. Complete peace prevailed on all the frontiers of the kingdom.

The death of Dāud Śāh ushered in another long reign of Tāj-ud-din Firoz Śāh who ascended the throne on 16-11-1397. The reign of Firoz was taken up by wars with Vijayanagar and Telaṅgaṇa. The Sultān, it is said, knew many languages. The reign of Firoz Śāh was noted for the influence of the Hindu culture in art and architecture in the Deccan. Firoz Śāh died

[1] *Ibid.*, p. 1410.
[2] H. K. Sherwani, *The Bahamanis of the Deccan*, p. 124.

on 22-9-1422 and was succeeded by his brother Śihab-ud-din Ahmad I. Ahmad, on accession, ordained that each provincial governor was to hold the rank of a commander of 2000. Miraj known as Mubārakābād was a separate *parganā* of the kingdom and was now placed in charge of Malik Imād-ul-mulk, a nobleman of the court. The kingdom was ravaged by famine again due to failure of rains for two successive years (1421 and 1422). Ahmad Śāh in 1426 decided to shift his capital from Gulbargā to Bidar. The task was carried out by Prince Muhammad. Bidar was hence forward called Muhammadābād. Like his predecessor, Ahmad Śāh soon engaged himself in wars with Vijayanagar and Telaṅgaṇa. He also deputed Malik-ut-tujjār, the governor of Daulatābād, to restore order in the territory adjoining the western coast where people had revolted due to miseries resulting from the preceding famines. Order was restored, banditti punished and several forts which had fallen to the rebels were retaken. The country was so deserted and desolate that old villages had disappeared and fresh villages had to be formed. Lands were given to all who could till them, free of rent for the first year and for a horse bag of grain for the second year. Ahmad Śah died in 1436 and was succeeded by his son Ala-ud-din Ahmad Śah II in the same year. A fine description of the kingdom is available from the writings of an Italian traveller Nicolo Conti who says that pestilence was unknown and the people were "not exposed to the diseases which carry off the population in our own country". Ala-ud-din Ahmad had to fight not only against the Hindu chiefs of Vijayanagar and Telaṅgaṇa but also against the Muslim chiefs of Gujarāt, Maḷvā, and Khandeś. He maintained himself successfully in his wars with these formidable opponents.

In 1447, the Sultān ordered the governor of Daulatābād, Malik-ut-tujjār, to undertake a campaign in the western parts of Bahamani kingdom to punish the recalcitrant chiefs and also reduce the coastal districts including Saṅgameśvar. He succeeded in the former, but miserably failed in the latter. Malik-ut-tujjār along with his army was led to a dense forest by Rajā Śaṅkar Rāv Śirke of Kheḷṇā or Viśālgaḍ, and was killed in a surprise attack. The entire Muslim army was massacred. The Bahamanis took a long time to recover from this shock and re-establish their power in that region. Ahmad had begun his rule well by diligent attention to government. Later, however, he gave himself up to a life of ease and luxury. He died on 3-4-1458. He was succeeded by Humāyun who had a short reign of 3 years. He is described by Feriśta and Sayyad Ali as cruel for the punitive methods he used in maintaining law and order. His subjects heaved a sigh of relief on his death on 1-9-1461. He was succeeded by his son Ahmad who assumed the title of Nizām-ud-din Ahmad III. After an inconsequential reign of two years he died on 30-7-1463 and was succeeded by his younger brother Śams-ud-din Muhammad III. Mahmud Gāvān who was the governor of Bijāpūr was appointed the prime minister with the title of Amīr-ul-umrā. Mahmud Gāvān in his

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expedition against the Hindu Rājās of the western coast established the lost prestige of the Bahamanis and subjugated the Deś and the Koṅkaṇ, which were never under the effective control of the Bahamanis. He made Kolhāpūr his headquarters and summoned forces from Dābhol, Karhād, Caul, Wāi and Māṇ *parganās* for help in the Koṅkaṇ campaign. During the premiership of Gāvān the Bahamani kingdom extended from sea to sea for the first time. Gāvān introduced a new scheme of administrative reforms for the effective governance of such a vast territory. He divided the kingdom into eight provinces of moderate size. They were Gāvil, Māhūr, Daulatābād, Junnar, Bijāpūr, Ahsanābād, Gulbargā, Rāj Mahendrī and Waraṅgal. Saṅglī formed part of Bijāpūr. He retained the province of Bijāpūr to himself. In every province was appointed a governor. However, the powers of the governors were much curtailed. Several areas in each of the eight divisions were reserved specially to meet the king's expenses.

In addition Gāvān revolutionised the military administration. Only one fort of the province was kept under the provincial governor whereas in the case of others the commandants were appointed by the central government and were responsible to it. In addition to civil and military reforms, Gāvān introduced land reforms including measurement of land, fixing the boundaries of villages and towns and making a thorough enquiry into the assessment of revenue. Mahmud Gāvān, however, did not live long to see the benefits of his reforms accruing to the kingdom. His attempt to control the powers of provincial governors brought on him the hatred of the nobility who poisoned the king's mind against him. The king ordered the executio: of Gāvān. This was carried out on 5-4-1481. The Bahamani kingdom never recovered from the shock it received in the death of Gāvān.

After the death of Mahmud Gāvān, Yusuf Ādil, the governor of Daulatabad, took over the fiefs formerly held by Gavan, namely, Belgaṅv and Bijapūr and naturally the district of Saṅgli passed under his control. The Sultān tried to conciliate Yusuf Ādil by personally going to Belgāṅv. However, he could not stem the tide of disintegration that had seized the Bahamani empire after the death of Gāvān and died in humiliation on 27th March, 1482.

Muhammad Śāh was succeeded by his son Mahmud. Yusuf Ādil on receiving the news of the death of the king hurried to the capital. The court was divided into two factions, one headed by Malik Hasan and the other by Yusuf Ādil. The visit of Yusuf Ādil passed off peacefully and he retired to Bijapūr leaving Nizām-ul-mulk *alias* Malik Hasan in full control. The Sultān, however, could not tolerate the overbearing influence of Malik Sasan and he encompassed his death in 1468. This was the beginning of the disintegration of the Bahamani empire as Malik Ahmad, the son of Malik Hasan, declared his independence. Soon after he was followed by Yusuf Ādil Khān.

The king sent orders to Yusuf Ādil to check the progress of Malik Ahmad but Yusuf Ādil paid no heed. At the capital Kāsim Barid had become all powerful. He sent a strong army against Yusuf Ādil. Yusuf advanced against Kāsim. The battle ended in the complete defeat of Barid. It is probable that a part of the district of Sāṅglī was in possession of Bahādur Gilānī, as we find Kāsim Barid offering Goā, Koṅkaṇ, Panhāḷā and Karhāḍ to Malik Ahmad to secure his help. Later in 1491 after the death of Nizam-ud-din Gilānī, the deputy of Gāvān, Bahādur Gilānī actually took possession of the whole coast-line right up to Dābhoḷ and occupied Kolhāpūr, Karhād, Panhāḷā. Beḷgāṅv, Miraj and other forts in the Southern Marāṭhā Country. It thus appears that due to the weakness in the central administration, the control of these territories must have been in a fluid state and they must have been constantly changing hands. The Sultān requisitioned assistance from Yusuf Ādil and other nobles. Yusuf Ādil captured Beḷgāṅv. Bahādur Gilānī was defeated. The Sultān was at that time camping at Miraj where Khvājā Nimat Ullā Tabrizi arrived on 7-5-1493. On this day was born a son to the Sultān at Miraj by the queen who was accompanying her royal escort. The Sultān offered favourable terms to Bahadur Gilānī, which Gilānī thought to be the weakness of the Sultān and, therefore, rejected them. The Sultān therefore marched from Miraj and captured Karhāḍ and thence proceeded to Kolhāpūr. Again talks between Gilānī and Sultān ensued, Gilānī demanding the retreat of the Sultān to Miraj which the Sultān refused. Forces were sent against Gilānī under the command of Qutub-ul-mulk and the former was defeated on 5-11-1494. Condition of strife and turmoil continued in the Bahamani kingdom. These gave an opportunity to the principal nobles to be more and more independent. In 1510 Yusuf Ādil died. The Sultān gave the title of Ādil Khān to Yusuf's son Ismāil. Mahmud Śāh died on 7-12-1518. With his death the Bahamani State, for all practical purposes, came to an end.

There is a controversy regarding the year in which Yusuf Ādil Khān became independent and hence as to when the Bijāpūr *prānt* including the district of Sāṅgli came to be known as the Ādil Śāhī kingdom. The contemporary historian Feriśtā is emphatic in his statement that Yusuf Ādil Khān caused the *Khutbā* to be read in his name in the *Hijrā* year 895 or 1489 A.D. However, Dr. Shervani on numismatic evidence has tried to disprove the above statement. He points out that the name of Yusuf Ādil, Ismāil Ādil and Mallu Ādil are not accompanied by royal epithets on their inscriptions. Not only that, but the fourth ruler of Bijāpūr as long as 1537 calls himself by his Bahamani title of Majlis-i-rafi Ādil Khān. Whatever it may be, the fact is clear that the disintegration of the Bahamani empire started with the declaration of independence by Malik Ahmad of Ahmadnagar, an event which was promptly followed by Yusuf Ādil of Bijāpūr in 1490. What respect, the so-called provincial governor paid to the defunct authority of

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the Sultān was in the nature of form only and had neither the grace nor the goodwill which generally accompanies it.

Ismāil Ādil being a minor at the time of his accession, the administration of the territories was vested in Kamāl Khān, the *Mir Nobat*. He settled the affairs of the kingdom by cultivating friendship with Nizām Śāh of Ahmadnagar, Kutb Śāh of Golcondā, Barid Śāh of Bidar and the Portuguese, now masters of Goā who maintained friendly relations with him. Kamāl Khān conspired to dethrone the young Sultān. However, he was assassinated by one Yusuf Turk at the connivance of the queen mother. The young Sultān thus relieved, reinstated the nobles dismissed by Kamāl Khān to their *jāgirs*. In 1514 Ismāil lead a successful campaign against Amīr Barid. In 1521 he suffered defeats at the hands of Vijayanagar. In 1525 he encountered successfully the attacks of Burhān Nizām Śāh and Amir Barid on his territory. Ismāil Śāh died on August 27, 1534. He was succeeded by his son Mallu Khān, who was however deposed by Yusuf Khan, a nobleman of rank, and Asad Khan, the governor of Belgāṅv. He was succeeded by the youngest son of Ismail Ādil *viz.*, Ibrāhim Ādil Śah I. He enlisted the Deccanis and Abyssinians in his service and ordered that the State accounts be kept in Hindvi instead of Persian. Immediately on his accession, the Sultān was engulfed in a war with Vijayanagar. In the meanwhile a breach arose between Ibrahim Ādil and his minister Asad Khān, taking advantage of which Burhan Nizām Śāh and Amīr Barid invaded Bijāpūr and moved in the direction of Belgāṅv. This event took place in 1540. Asad Khan, however, contrived to secure the help of Imad Śah and brought about a reconciliation with Ibrāhim Ādil. Some time between 1543 and 1548 attempts were made to depose Ibrāhim and enthrone his brother Abdulla in which conspiracy Burhan Śāh, Jamśid Kutb Śāh and the Portuguese had joined. Burhan Śah tried to persuade Asad Khan to join his cause, but on receipt of the news of Asad Khān's illness he decided to capture Belgāṅv and camped at Miraj. Asad Khan, however, remained firm in his loyalty and the conspiracy ended in failure. The enmity between Bijāpūr and Ahmadnagar continued even after the death of Burhān Nizām Śāh, in 1553 and the accession of Hussain Nizām Śāh. Ibrāhim Ādil Śāh suffered at the hands of Hussain Nizām Śāh in the battle fought on the plains of Solāpūr. Ibrāhim's general Saif-Ain-ul-Mulk incurred the wrath of his king and was turned out. He repaired to his *jagir* in Māṇ and collected revenues therefrom. Ibrāhim sent troops against him but the royalists were defeated. Ain-ul-mulk growing bolder collected the revenues of many districts such as Miraj and Vāḷvā.

The troops subsequently sent by Ādil Śāh were defeated by Ain-ul-mulk who began to think of establishing himself as an independent chief. He even forced Ādil Śāh to retire when Ādil Śāh marched personally in the territory round about the river Māṇ.* Ādil Śāh, however, with the help of the Vijayanagar

king succeeded in quelling the rebellion of Ain-ul-mulk who retreated to Nizām Śāh's territory through Maṇdeś. Soon after in 1558 A.D. Ibrāhim Ādil Śāh died.

At the time of the death of Ibrāhim Ādil Śāh, Kiśwar Khān, who was the governor of Hukkerī, Beḷgāṅv and Rāybāg, approached Śikandar Khān who was the governor of Miraj to secure his help to raise Ali Ādil Śāh (who had been detained in the fort of Miraj by his father) to the throne, as many noblemen favoured the younger son Prince Tahmāsp. This was accepted by Śikandar Khān who sent his son-in-law Kāmil Khān to the fort of Miraj to attend on the prince. The prince moved towards Bijāpūr and on the death of Ibrāhim Ādil Śāh ascended the throne. Ali Ādil Śāh desired the possession of the fort of Kalyāṇī and Śolāpūr which had been lost to the Nizām Śāh of Ahamadnagar. He entered into alliance with Rām Rājā of Vijayanagar. The Vijayanagar troops laid waste the whole territory of Ahmadnagar. Hussain Nizām Śāh, the Ahmadnagar ruler, on this, handed over Kalyāṇī to Ādil Śāh. The peace was short-lived and alliances were formed and broken. The power and prestige of the Vijayanagar king was now becoming unbearable to the Muslim rulers of the Deccan. They, therefore, combined in opposing Vijayanagar. They defeated Rām Rājā, the prime minister of Vijayanagar, in the battle of Tāḷikoṭa in 1565. In the subsequent years Ali Ādil Śāh further extended his domains. He died in 1580. He was succeeded by his nephew Ibrāhim Ādil Śāh II, son of his brother, Śāh Tahmāsp. Being a minor, the management of the affairs of the kingdom devolved on Kāmil Khān and Cāndbibī, the dowager queen. Kāmil Khān, however, was removed and later killed by Kiśwar Khān at the instance of Cāndbibī. Kiśwar Khān now became the regent. Later, estrangement arose between the new regent and Cāndbibī. The regent confined her in the fort of Sātārā. Affairs at Bijāpūr were in a fluid state and the prime ministership passed to one noble after another. One Ikhalās Khān removed Kiśwar Khān and himself assumed the regency. He invited Ain-ul-mulk from his *jāgīr* in Māṇ and Vāḷvā. Ain-ul-mulk on reaching the city found the minister waiting for him outside the city gates. Ain-ul-mulk seized him treacherously and marched to the city but on finding the gates closed retired to his *jāgīr*. Shortly after, Bijāpūr was besieged by the forces of Ahmadnagar and Goḷcoṇḍā. Cāndbibī heroically withstood the siege which was raised. The army of Ahmadnagar retired plundering on their return the districts of Karāḍ and Miraj. The Goḷcoṇḍā army under Mustafā Khān was defeated by Dilāwar Khān, who succeeded to regency by deposing Ikhalās Khān, the regent. He became very powerful. Ibrāhim Ādil Śāh, now a full-fledged monarch, could no longer tolerate this state of affairs. He called Ain-ul-mulk to his side from his *jāgīr* and succeeded in overwhelming Dilāwar Khān who escaped to Ahmadnagar. Later in 1592 the king invited him for audience and on his obeying him blinded him and put him in confinement in the fortress of Sātārā. Ibrāhim Śāh then successfully thwarted the designs of Burhān Nizām Śāh with the help of the Marāṭhā soldiery who were serving with the Adilśāhis

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since long. The year 1594 saw the rebellion by Prince Ismāil, the brother of the king confined at Belgāṅv. Ibrāhim sent Ain-ul-mulk and Hiyāt Khān to put the matters right. But Ain-ul-mulk kept contact with the prince, put Hiyāt Khān in fetters and openly declared his defection. He invited other officers to join him. The garrison at Miraj revolted and proclaimed Ismāil, king. Ain-ul-mulk invited Burhān Nizām Śāh. Great commotion prevailed in the kingdom and rebellions broke out. However, Ibrāhim Ādil's commandant Hamid Khān succeeded in capturing Ain-ul-mulk who was blown from a cannon and 17 persons of the garrison of Miraj were put to death.

Under the Bijāpūr kings, though perhaps less regularly than afterwards under the Moghals, the country was divided into districts. The district was divided into sub-divisions which were generally known by the Persian names *parganā, karyat, sammat, mahāl,* and *tālukā,* and some times by the Hindu names of *prānt* and *deś*. The hilly west, which was generally managed by Hindu officers, continued to be designated by valleys with their Hindu names of *khorā, murā,* and *māvaḷ*. The collection of the revenue was generally entrusted to farmers; the farms some times included only one village. Where the revenue was not farmed, its collection was generally entrusted to Hindu officers. Over the revenue-farmers was a government agent or *amil,* who, besides collecting the revenue, managed the police and settled civil suits. Civil suits relating to land were generally referred to juries or *pañcāyats*. In money suits the *amils* or government agents passed decisions. One of the *amildārs*, who superintended a considerable division and to whom all other *amildārs* were subordinate, was termed *mokāsadār,* and it is conjectured that he had some percentage on the revenue. The *mokāsadār's* office, though it some times continued from father to son, was not hereditary. Frequently but not always, over the *mokāsadār* was a *subhedār* who, although he took no share in the revenue management and did not live in the district, executed deeds and formal writings of importance. Though the chief power in the country was Muhammedan, Hindus were largely employed in the service of the State. The garrisons of hill forts seem generally to have been of Hindus, Marāthās, Koḷis, Rāmośīs, and Dhangars, a few places of special strength being reserved for Musalmān commandants or *killedārs*. Besides the hill forts, some parts of the open country were left under loyal Marāṭhā and Brāhman officers with the titles of estate-holder or *jāgīrdār* and of district head or *deśmukh*. Estates were generally granted on military tenure, the value of the grant being in proportion to the number of troops which the grant-holder maintained. Phalṭan from which in the time of the *Peśavās* 350 horse were required, furnished only fifty to the Bijāpūr government at a very late period of the dynasty, but the Marāṭhā chiefs could procure horsemen at short notice and they were entertained or discharged at pleasure. Family feuds or personal hate, and, in the case of those whose lands lay near the borders of other kingdoms, an intelligent regard for the chances of war, often divided Marāṭhā families and led members of one

family to take service under rival Musalmān States. Many Hindus were employed in the Bijāpūr armies and those of distinguished service were rewarded with the Hindu title of *Rājā*, *Nāik*, and *Rāv*.

The principal Marāṭhā chiefs in the region under the Bijāpūr government were Candrarāv More of Jāvḷī, about thirty-five miles north-west of Sātārā, the Ḍaphḷe of Jath, about ninety miles south-east of Satarā, Māne of Mhasvad, about sixty miles east of Sātārā, and the Ghorpaḍe of Kāpśī on the Varṇā about thirty miles south of Karhāḍ. A person named More, originally a Karnāṭak chief was appointed in the reign of Yusuf Ādil Śāh (1490—1510) to the command of a body of 12,000 Hindu infantry sent to reduce the strong tract between the Nīrā and the Varṇā. More was successful. He dispossessed the Śirkes and completely suppressed the depredations of their abettors, the chiefs of whom were Gujar, Māmulkar, Mohite, and Mahāḍik. More was dignified with the title of Candrarāv and his son Yeśvantrāv, having distinguished himself in a battle fought with the troops of Burhān Nizām Śāh (1509—1553), in which he captured a green flag, was confirmed in succession to his father as *Rājā* of Jāvḷī and had permission to use the banner he had won. Their descendants ruled in the same tract of country for seven generations and under their mild and just management that barren tract became populous. All the successors of the first More assumed the title of Candrarāv. The unswerving loyalty of this family induced the Bijāpūr govern-producing so little, which had always been in disorder under Muhammedan governors. Rāv Nāik Nimbāḷkar or Phalṭaṇrāv was the *nāik* of Phalṭaṇ. His original surname was Pavār; he had taken the name of Nimbāḷkar from Nimālik or Nimlak where the first Nimbāḷkar lived. The family is considered one of the ment to exact little more than a nominal tribute from districts most ancient in Mahārāṣṭra as the Nimbāḷkar was made *sardeśmukh* of Phalṭaṇ before the middle of the seventeenth century by one of the Bijāpūr kings. The *deśmukh* of Phalṭaṇ is said to have become a polygar or independent chief and to have repeatedly withheld the revenues of the districts. Vaṅgojī or Jagpāḷrāv Nāik Nimbāḷkar who lived in the early part of the seventeenth century was notorious for his restless and predatory habits. Dipābāī, the sister of Jagpāḷrāv, was married to Mālojī Bhosle, Śivājī's grandfather who was one of the principal chiefs under the Ahmadnagar kingdom. Jagpāḷrāv Nāik seems to have been a man of great influence. One of the Phalṭaṇ Nāiks was killed in 1620 in a battle between Malik Ambar and the Moghals. Nimbāḷkar never exchanged his ancient title of *nāik* for that of *Rājā*. Jhuñjhārrāv Ghāṭge, the *deśmukh* of Mālavaḍī was the head of a powerful family whose founder Kām Rāje Ghāṭge had a small command under the Bahamani kings. His native country, Khaṭāv was separated from that of the Nimbāḷkar by the Mahādev Hills. The Ghāṭges were *deśmukhs* and *sardeśmukhs* of the *parganā* of Māṇ. In 1626 Nāgojī Ghāṭge was given the title of *sardeśmukh* as an unconditional favour by Ibrāhim Ādil Śāh II together with the title of Jhuñjhārrāv.

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The head of the Māne family was *deśmukh* of Mhasvaḍ, adjoining the district of the Ghāṭges. The Mānes were distinguished *śiledārs* or self-horsed cavaliers under Bijāpūr, but were nearly as known for their revengeful character as the Śirkes. The Ghorpaḍes, who were originally Bhosles, according to their family legend, acquired their present surname during the Bahamani times from having been the first to scale a fort in the Konkaṇ which was deemed impregnable by fastening a cord round the body of a *ghorpaḍ* or iguana. They were *deśmukhs* under the Bijāpūr government and were divided into two distinct families, one of Kāpśī near the Varṇā river and the other of Mudhoḷ near the Ghaṭprabhā in the Karnāṭak. Under Bijāpūr the Kāpśikar Ghorpaḍes were known as the *navkas* or nine-touch Ghorpaḍes and the Mudhoḷkars as the *sātkas* or seven-touch Ghorpaḍes, a distinction which the two families maintain. The head of the Mudhoḷkar Ghorpaḍes was the *pāṭīl* of a village near Sātārā. The Ghorpaḍes seem to have signalized themselves at a very early period. The high Musalmān titles of *Amīr-ul-umrā* or Chief of the Nobles was conferred on one of the members of the Kāpśī family by the Bijāpūr kings. The first Ghorpaḍe that joined Śivājī was one of the Kāpśīkars while the Mudhoḷkars were his bitter enemies. The Ḍaphḷes were *deśmukhs* of the *parganā* of Jath in Sāṅglī district. Their original name was Cavhāṇ and they took the surname of Ḍaphḷe from their village of Ḍaphḷāpūr of which they were hereditary *pāṭīls*. They held a command from the Bijāpūr kings.

Ibrāhim Ādil Śāh II.

The first Moghal invasion of the Deccan began in 1593 in the reign of Akbar. He tried to induce the kingdoms of the Deccan to accept his suzerainty but he did not succeed except in case of Khāndeś which was subjugated in 1600. Ahmadnagar and Berār also became parts of the Moghal dominion. But the struggle with Ahmadnagar continued. The aggressive wars in the Deccan did not come to an end in the reign of Jahāṅgīr, who succeeded Akbar on October 25/26, 1605. Jahāṅgīr died in November, 1627 and the death of Ibrāhim Ādil Śāh II took place in the same year. Ibrāhim was succeeded by Mahmud Ādil Śāh.

Mahmud Ādil Śāh.

Śāh Jahān ascended the throne in early 1628. Śāh Jahān continued his aggressive designs against the Sultāns of the Deccan. In 1631 the imperial forces directed a campaign against Bijāpūr under Asaf Khān but were forced to withdraw. The Nizāmśāhī officer Siddi Rihān who had joined Mahmud Ādil Śāh was granted among others Khānāpūr (Sāṅglī district). Karhāḍ and Kolhāpūr formed his *jāgīr*. Śāh Jahān, however, followed a ruthless policy of aggression, devastating the Bijāpūr territory. Ādil Śāh under these circumstances had to submit to a treaty under which he was to pay tribute to the emperor and not to help Śahājī, the Ahmadnagar nobleman, who was harassing the Moghal territory. Under this treaty Bijāpūr received as its share, part of the old Nizāmśāhī territory. The treaty between Bijāpūr and the Moghals concluded in 1636

lasted for 20 years till the death of Mahmud Ādil Śāh. Mahmud Śāh, however, took advantage of the temporary tranquillity and extended his rule in the south.

Rise of the Marāṭhā Power.

In 1636, the Nizāmśāhī dynasty came to an end. Towards the end of 1636 Śahājī Bhosale, the son of Mālojī Bhosale, who had taken a considerable part in Nizāmśāhī affairs during the last years of the dynasty, was allowed to retire into the service of Mahmud Ādil Śāh of Bijāpūr (1626-1656). In 1637, besides giving Śahājī his *jāgīr* districts in Pooṇā, Mahmud Ādil Śāh conferred on him a royal grant for the *deśmukhi* of twenty-two villages including Masūr in the district of Karhāḍ, the right to which had devolved on government through confiscation. Before the middle of the 17th century, Śahājī's son Śivājī, the founder of the Marāṭhā empire, had begun to establish himself in the hilly parts of Pooṇā in the north where he had been put in possession of his father's estate of Pooṇā and Supā. By 1648 he obtained control over the strong forts of Torṇā in Bhor about thirty-five miles south-west of Pooṇā, Koṇḍāṇā or Sinhgaḍ about twelve miles south-west of Pooṇā, Purandar about twenty miles south of Pooṇā, and Rājgaḍ in Bhor about five miles east of Torṇā. At this time the south of the Nīrā, as far east as Śirvaḷ and as far south as the range of hills north of the Kṛṣṇā, was farmed by the hereditary *deśmukh* of Hirḍas Māvaḷ, a Marāṭhā named Bāndal, and the fort of Rohiḍā was committed to his care. He early entertained a jealousy of Śivājī and kept a strong garrison and carefully watched the country round Purandar. The *deśpāṇḍe* of the place was a Prabhu. Wāī was the station of a Bijāpūr *mokāsadār* or manager who had charge of Pāṇḍugaḍ, Kamalgaḍ and several other forts in the neighbourhood. Candrarāv More, *Rājā* of Jāvḷī, was in possession of the Ghāṭmāthā from the Kṛṣṇā to the Varṇā. The Bijāpūr government on charges of treason arrested Śahājī in 1648 and at the same time sent an army under Fateh Khan to attack Śivājī. Śivājī proved more than a match for him and defeated him in the battle of Belsar near Purandar. Śahājī was subsequently released by the end of the year 1649 and an effort was made to bring about reconciliation between him and Bājī Ghorpaḍe, the Mudhoḷ Chief, who had been instrumental in his capture. To induce both parties to forget what had passed, Mahmud Ādil Śāh made them exchange their hereditary rights and *ināms* as *deśmukhs*. Bājī Ghorpaḍe thus obtained from Śahājī the *deśmukhi* rights of twenty-two villages in Karhāḍ which Śahājī had acquired in 1637 from Bijāpūr. This agreement however was not acted upon. In the meanwhile another attempt was made to seize Śivājī, and this time Bājī Śāmrāj was sent for the purpose. Śivājī frequently lived at the town of Mahāḍ in Kolābā and the party of Śāmrāj, passing through the territory of Candrarāv More, lurked about the Pār pass until an opportunity should offer. Śivājī anticipated the surprise, attacked the party near the bottom of the pass and drove them in great panic to the forests. Disturbances in the Karnāṭak prevented the Bijāpūr government from taking further active

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steps against Śivājī, who finding that his father had been sent far away from the capital on a military campaign in Karnāṭak, began to devise new schemes for possessing himself of the whole Ghāṭmāthā or hilly west Deccan. With this object in view Śivājī turned his attention to the Mores of Jāvḷī who were very powerful in that region. The ruling prince Yeśvantrāv was however none too friendly towards Śivājī and would not fall in line with the designs of Śivājī. In fact he had reasons to be grateful to Śivājī because it was he who was instrumental in enabling Yeśvantrāv to succeed to the *jāgīr* of Jāvḷī after the death of Daulatrāv in 1648, who had died childless and whose widow had sought the help of Śivājī in adopting young Yeśvantrāv and carrying on the administration in his name during the latter's minority, with the assistance of one Haṇmantrāv More, a distant relation of the family. In course of time Yeśvantrāv grew jealous of his independent position and impatient of Śivājī's interference. Śivājī spent years in negotiations for a peaceful way to gain his object. There was also understandable reason for Śivājī's patience. Afzal Khān, the *subhedār* of Wāi, who had acted as the representative of the sovereign power of Bijāpūr since 1649 was anxious to prevent both Yeśvantrāv and Śivājī from growing very powerful in that region. He had sent letters to Kānhojī Jedhe and other *sardārs* to join his standard for the purpose. There thus arose a triangular contest between the Mores, Śivājī and Afzal Khān. About the year 1654, Afzal Khān came to be transferred to Kanakgirī and Śivājī seized this opportunity of Afzal Khān's absence to deal resolutely with the affair. He took into his confidence some of the Māvaḷ *deśmukhs*, particularly Kānhojī Jedhe and Haibatrāv Silimkar as also other neighbours of the Mores and sent a proposal to Jāvḷī stating terms which the Mores refused to accept. Then he dispatched a contingent of these *deśmukhs* along with his commandar Saṁbhājī Kāvjī and a small force threatening their residence. This first attempt proved ineffectual, and Śivājī sent another force under Raghunāth Ballāḷ Korḍe. A battle was fought near Jāvḷī in which Haṇmantrāv More was killed and Yeśvantrāv fled for his life and took shelter in the fort of Rāirī. Partāprāv More another scion of the family escaped to Bijāpūr to seek the help of Ādil Śah to oust Śivājī from Jāvḷī (26-1-1656). Śivājī himself at once proceeded to Jāvḷī, stayed there for two months, and strengthened his hold upon the principality. In the meantime Yeśvantrāv started serious trouble afresh from the hill top of Rāirī, a large and lofty plateau near Mahāḍ which belonged to the Mores. Śivājī sent troops with his agent Haibatrāv Silimkar to Yeśvantrāv demanding submission. After a long negotiation, a meeting was arranged at the foot of Rāirī in May. When the Mores came down to meet Śivājī, he had the principal offender Yeśvantrāv executed and carried his two sons Kṛṣṇājī and Bājī as captives to Pooṇā. The capture of the strong fort of Vāsoṭh, which had also belonged to Mores, about fifteen miles west of Sātārā, subsequently called Vajragaḍ by Śivājī and the conquest

of Śivthar valley completed the conquest of Jāvḷī. Later on, the two sons of Yeśvantrāv were detected conducting secret intrigues with Bijāpūr; one of them was killed while the other escaped. The result of Śivāji's swift and decisive action towards Mores was on the whole helpful to his pursuits, because the turbulent chiefs in the surrounding area came to know what to expect from him if an open opposition were offered to his plans and desires. Śivājī followed up his conquest of Jāvḷī by surprising Rohiḍā which he scaled at night at the head of the *Mavḷes*. Bāndal, the *deśmukh* who was in the fort at the time stood to his arms on the first moment of alarm; and although greatly outnumbered, his men did not submit until he was killed. At the head of them was Bajī Prabhu Deśpāṇḍe; Śivajī treated him with generosity, received him with great kindness, and confirmed him in all his hereditary possessions. He agreed to take service under Śivājī. The command of a considerable body of infantry was conferred upon him and he maintained his character for bravery and fidelity to the last. In 1656, to secure access to his possessions on the banks of the Nīrā and the Koynā and to strengthen the defences of the Pār Pass Śivājī pitched upon a high rock near the source of the Kṛṣṇā on which he resolved to build another fort commanding an extensive view of Koṅkaṇ to the west. The execution of the design was entrusted to Moro Trimaḷ Piṅgḷe, who shortly before had been appointed to command the fort of Purandar in Pooṇā. This man, when very young, had accompanied his father, then in the service of Śahājī to the Karnāṭak and returning to the Marāṭhā country about the year 1653 had joined Śivājī. The able manner in which he executed every thing entrusted to him soon gained him the confidence of his master and the erection of Pratāpgaḍ, the name given to the new fort, confirmed the favourable opinion entertained of him. A new image of the goddess Bhavāni, the prototype of his family deity, Bhavāni of Tuljāpūr, was later installed in the fort and Śivājī made it a practice to visit the place on devotional grounds, whereby he effectively served his political object of keeping a watchful eye on the region around. On the death of Muhamad Ādil Śāh in 1656 and the succession of the Ali Ādil Śāh II, the Moghals under Auraṅgzeb, then viceroy of the Deccan, invaded the Bijāpūr territories and Sarjerāv Ghāṭge, Nimbāḷkar, and other Marāṭhā estate holders promptly joined Khān Muhammad, the Bijāpūr prime minister with their troops. In 1658 Auraṅgzeb deposed his ailing father and ascended the throne by defeating his competitors.

About the year 1658, Bijāpūr was distracted by factions among its nobles owing to the youth of its sovereign Ali Ādil Śāh II. At last they became sensible of the necessity of making all active efforts to subdue Śivājī. For this purpose an army was assembled consisting of 5,000 horse and 7,000 choice infantry, a good train of artillery or what was considered as such, besides a large supply of rockets, a number of swivels mounted on camels, and abundance of stores. Afzal Khān, an officer of high rank, volunteered to command the expedition and declared that he would bring back the insignificant rebel and cast him in chains under the footstool

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of the throne. The army proceeded in September 1659 from Bijāpūr to Paṇḍharpūr and thence marched towards Wāī. Śivājī on its approach, took up his residence in Pratāpgaḍ and sent the most humble messages to Afzal Khān. Afzal Khān, who had all the vanity of a Muhammedan noble, had also a thorough contempt for his enemy. An interview was agreed on, and the Bijāpūr troops with great labour moved to Jāvḷī. Śivājī prepared a place for the meeting below the fort of Pratāpgaḍ. It was Thursday, 10th of November 1659.

Afzal Khān meant treachery. On the appointed day Śivājī prepared to meet the Khān. The Khān advanced two or three paces to meet Śivājī. They were introduced to each other and further in the midst of the customary embrace, the tall and mighty Khān was able to hold the neck of comparatively short-statured Śivājī under his left arm. As the Khān tried to press it, he took out his dagger from his waist on the right side and tried to hit the left side of Śivājī. As Śivājī was clad in armour the steel weapon only made a sharp rubbing sound against his side but did not hurt him. Thereupon Śivājī, ever on his guard thrust the *bicvā* in his left hand in the right side of the Khān. The Khān wore no armour and therefore the hit proved singularly effective and ripped open his bowels. The end of the Khān was not long delayed. A signal was given to the Marāṭhā troops in the hills under the command of Netājī Pālkar and Moropant Piṅgle. They fell upon the Bijāpūr troops who were camping at the foot of the hill. Few of the Bijāpūr soldiers had time to mount their horses or to stand their arms. Netājī Pālkar gave no quarter; but orders were sent to Moropant to spare all who submitted.

This success greatly raised the reputation of Śivājī. The immediate fruits were four thousand horses, several elephants, a number of camels, a considerable treasure, and the whole train of equipment which had been sent against him.

In 1659, Śivājī surprised the fort of Vasantagaḍ about seven miles north-west of Karhād, levied contributions along the Kṛṣṇā, and left a *thāṇā* or garrison with a revenue collector in the *gaḍhī* or mud fort of Battis Śirāḷā. In January 1661, Ali Ādil Śāh II, disappointed in his hopes of crushing Śivājī, took the field in person and marched to Miraj. All the district authorities, some of whom had submitted to Śivājī, attended the royal camp to tender their allegiance. Ali Ādil Śāh recovered Panhāḷā and Rāṅgṇā in Kolhāpūr which had fallen to Śivājī in the previous year and returned by way of Miraj. In 1660 Śāistā Khān was appointed governor of the Deccan to contain Śivājī, but Śivājī, carried a surprise attack on him at Pooṇā.

On the defeat and disgrace of Śāistā Khān in 1663, Auraṅgzeb dispatched his generals Mirzā Rājā Jaysiṅgh and Diler Khān against Śivājī. Recognising the superiority of Moghal forces, Śivājī submitted and signed the treaty of Purandar. In 1665, in accordance with the terms of the treaty of Purandar by which he was to co-operate with the Moghals to subdue Bijāpūr, Śivājī

with a body of 2,000 horse and 7,000 infantry joined Jaysiṅgh and the combined army marched in November 1665. Their first operations were against Bajājī Nāik Nimbāḷkar, a relation of Śivājī and *jāgirdār* of Bijāpūr. Phalṭaṇ was reduced and the fort of Tāthvaḍ scaled by Śivājī's *Mavḷes*. All the fortified places in their route were taken. Ali Ādil Śāh had prepared for a trial of strength, but endeavoured to prevent the invasion by promises of settling the demands of the Moghals. Jaysiṅgh however continued his advance and met with little opposition until near Mangaḷveḍhā in Solāpūr. The campaign, however, failed and Jaysiṅgh had to withdraw from the Bijāpūr territory in humiliation. As per the terms of the treaty of Purandar Śivājī visited Āgrā in May 1666. Auraṅgzeb detained Śivājī but he miraculously escaped and reached Rājgaḍ in November. Auraṅgzeb now recalled Jaysiṅgh and appointed prince Muāzzam and Jaswantsiṅgh to take his place. In September 1667 Ādil Śāh concluded a treaty with Śivājī. In March 1668 the Moghals also entered into a treaty with Śivājī under the terms of which Sambhājī joined the Moghal camp in August 1668. In January 1670 Śivājī plundered Berār and captured Sinhagaḍ, Kalyāṇ and Bhivaṇḍī in quick succession. On January 5, 1671 Śivājī captured Sālher. In February 1672 Junnar and Rāmnagar were reduced.

Conflict broke out with the Moghals in 1670, which continued till Śivājī's death in 1680. Śivājī attacked the kingdom of Bijāpūr as well. Śivājī wrested all the forts ceded by him to the Moghals and carried on the war in Bāglāṇ.

Ali Ādil Śāh II died in 1672. He was succeeded by Śikandar Ādil Śāh, a boy of four.

The nobles of Bijāpūr decided that Khawās Khān should be at Bijāpūr looking after the administration of the kingdom and hold Gulbargā and Naḷdurg.

Abdul Karim Bahlol Khān was given the territory including Panhāḷā and Miraj, and Muzaffar Khān was to hold the Karnāṭak Bālāghāṭ. Taking advantage of Ali Ādil Śāh's death, Śivājī captured Panhāḷā, Sātārā and Paraḷi in quick succession. He even possessed himself of Karwār and the surrounding country of Karnāṭak Bālāghāt. All efforts of Bijāpūr generals to oust him from this area failed.

In May 1673 Śivājī captured Paraḷī fort and on 27th July of the same year Sātārā fell to his forces. The forts of Candan, Vandan, Pāṇḍavgaḍ, Nandgirī and Tāthvaḍ all fell into Śivājī's hands before the fair season. In 1675 Śivājī again possessed himself of all the forts between Panhāḷā in Kolhāpūr and Tāthvaḍ. When he was occupied in Koṅkaṇ and had taken with him all the infantry that could be spared, Nimbāḷkar and Ghātge, the *deśmukhs* of Phaltan and Mālavaḍī, attacked

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Śivājī's garrisons, drove out the posts and recovered most of the open country for Bijāpūr. On the 6th June 1674 Śivājī was crowned as *Chatrapati* at Rāygaḍ. He started a new era from that date. In 1676 Śivājī for the third time took possession of the open country between Tāthvaḍ and Panhāḷā. To prevent future inroads by neighbouring proprietors Śivājī gave orders to connect the two places by a chain of forts, which he named Vardhangaḍ, Bhuṣangaḍ, Sadāśivgaḍ and Macchindragaḍ. Although of no great strength, they were well chosen to support his intermediate posts and to protect the highly productive tract within the frontier which they embraced. While engaged in this arrangement Śivājī was overtaken by a severe illness which confined him at Sātārā for several months. During his illness he planned the most important expedition of his life, the invasion of the Madrās Karnāṭak. The discussion of his legal claim to share in half of his father's Karnāṭak possessions and the possibility of making this a cloak for more extensive acquisitions in the south was a constant subject of consultation. While Śivājī was in the Karnāṭak a body of horse belonging to Ghāṭge and Nimbāḷkar laid waste Panhāḷā in the south and retired plundering towards Karhāḍ. A detachment from Śivājī's army under Nirojī Kāṭkar overtook them at Kurlī, attacked and dispersed them, recovering much valuable property. Śivājī returned from the Karnāṭak expedition in 1678.

On December 13th 1678, Śivājī's son Saṁbhājī joined the Moghals. In the same year Diler Khān marched from Akluj for the capture of Bhopālgaḍ which was in possession of the Marāṭhās. Sambhājī accompanied Diler Khān in Khānāpūr *tālukā* of Sāṅglī district. Diler Khān mounted guns on the nearby hillock and bombarded the ramparts. The garrison surrendered the fort on 2nd April 1679. On the same day the Marāṭhā dispatched reinforcements for the succour of the fort garrison. To counter the Marāṭhā forces Diler Khān dispatched Ikhlās Khān, Rājā Jāswantsiṅgh Bundellā and Raśidali Rośanai *alias* Ilhāmullāh Khān. But finding the Marāṭhā troops superior in strength he himself followed his nobles. The Marāṭhā's were defeated. Diler Khān then returned to his camp. The Marāṭhā's however recaptured Bhopālgaḍ on 15th April 1679. Diler Khān next marched against Bijāpūr. He also attempted to seduce the Bijāpūr garrison of Miraj but without success. Shortly after Saṁbhājī returned to Śivājī's side. Throughout the year 1679 Śivājī exerted his utmost to assist Bijāpūr against the Moghals, by sending reinforcements and also by planning diversionary bands in Moghal territory. As a result, Diler Khān the Moghal general had to raise the siege and retire discomfited. At the time of his death in 1680, Śivājī, who during the last two years of his life had become an ally of Bijāpūr against the Moghals, possessed that part of Sātārā of which the line of forts built from Tāthvaḍ to Panhāḷā distinctly marked the eastern boundary. Śiṅgṇāpūr in the Māṇ sub-division in the east with the temple of Mahādev was his hereditary *inām* village given by one of the Ghātges to his father Śahājī.

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The various institutions of Śivājī are the key to the forms of government afterwards adopted by every Marāṭhā State. Śivājī's regulations were gradually formed and enlarged, but after a certain period underwent no change by the extension of his territory until he assumed the ensign of royalty. Even then the alterations were rather in matters of form than in rules. The plans of Marāṭhā expansion which were afterwards pursued so successfully by his nation may be traced from a very early period and nothing is more remarkable in regard to Śivājī than the foresight with which some of his schemes were laid and the fitness of his arrangements for the genius of his countrymen.

The foundation of his power was his infantry; his occupation of the forts gave him a hold on the country and a place of deposit for his plunder. His cavalry had not yet spread the terror of the Marāṭhā name; but the rules of formation and discipline for his troops, the interior economy of his infantry and cavalry, the regulations for his forts, his revenue and judicial arrangements, and the chief offices through which his government was administered were fully developed. Śivājī's infantry was raised in the West Deccan and Koṅkaṇ; the men of the West Deccan tract were called *mavḷes* or westerners and those of the Koṅkaṇ, *heṭkaris* or southerners. These men brought their own arms and required nothing but ammunition. Their dress, though not uniform, was generally a pair of short drawers coming half-way down the thigh, a strong narrow band of considerable length tightly girt about the loins, a turban, and sometimes a cotton frock. Most of them wore a cloth round the waist, which likewise answered the purposes of *śāl*. Their common arms consisted of a sword, a shield and a matchlock. Some of the *heṭkaris*, especially the infantry of Sāvantvāḍī, used a species of firelock, the invention of the lock for the flint having been early received from the Portuguese. Every tenth man, instead of fire-arms, carried a bow and arrows which were useful in night attacks and surprises when fire-arms were kept in reserve or forbidden. The *Heṭkaris* excelled as marksmen but they could seldom be brought to the desperate sword-in-hand attacks for which the *māvḷes* were famous. Both of them had unusual skill in climbing, and could mount a precipice or scale a rock with ease, where men of other countries must have run great risk of being dashed to pieces. Every ten men had an officer called a *nāik* and every fifty a *havildār*. The officer over a hundred was termed *jumlādār* and the commander of a thousand was styled *ek-hazāri*. There were also officers of five thousand, between whom and the *sarnobat* or the chief commander there was no intermediate step. The cavalry was of two kinds, *bārgīrs*, literally bridlemen or riders who were supplied with horses and *śiledārs* who were self-horsed; Śivājī's *bārgīrs* were generally mounted on horses, the property of the State. A body of this description was termed *pāgā* or household troops, and Śivājī always placed more dependence on them than on the *śiledārs* or any horse furnished on contract by individuals; with both he had a proportion of his *pāgā* mixed,

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to overawe the disobedient and to perfect his system of intelligence which abroad and at home penetrated into a knowledge of the most private circumstances, prevented embezzlement and frustrated treachery. The Marāṭhā horsemen were commonly dressed in a pair of tight breeches covering the knee, a turban which many of them fastened by passing a fold of it under the chin, a frock of quilted cotton and a cloth round the waist, with which they generally girded on their swords in preference to securing them with their belts. The horseman was armed with a sword and a shield; a proportion in each body carried matchlocks, but the great national weapon was the spear, in the use of which and in the management of their horses they showed both grace and skill. The spearman had generally a sword and sometimes a shield; but the shield was unwieldy, and was carried only in case the spear should be broken. Over every twenty-five horsemen Śivājī had a *havildār*. To one hundred and twenty-five there was a *jumlādār*, and to every five *jumlās* or six hundred and twenty-five was a *subhedār*. Every *subhā* had an accountant and auditor of accounts appointed by Śivājī. They were liable to be changed. They were invariably Brāhmaṇs or Prabhus. To the command of every ten *subhās* or six thousand two hundred and fifty horse, which were rated at only five thousand, there was a commander styled *pañc-hazārī* with whom were also stationed a *muzumdār* or a Brāhmaṇ auditor of accounts and a Prabhu registrar and accountant who was called *amin*. These were government agents. Besides these, every officer, from the *jumlādār* upwards, had one or more *kārkuns* or writers paid by himself as well as others in the pay of government. Except the *sarnobat* or the chief, no officer was superior to the commander of five thousand. There was one *sarnobat* for the cavalry and one for the infantry. Every *jumlā*, *subhā*, and *pañc-hazārī* had an establishment of news-writers and spies besides secrete intelligencers. Śivājī's head spy was a Marāṭhā named Bahirjī Naik. The Marāṭhās are peculiarly roused from indolence and apathy when charged with responsibility. Śivājī at the beginning of his career personally inspected every man who offered himself, and obtained security from persons already in his service for the fidelity and good conduct of those with whom he was not acquainted. This system of security must soon have made almost every man answerable for some of his comrades; and although it could have been in most instances but a form, owing to the ease with which the responsibility could be evaded, the demand of security was always a part of Śivājī's instructions to his officers. The *māvḷes* sometimes enlisted, merely on condition of getting a subsistence in grain; but the regular pay of the infantry was 1 to 3 *pagoḍās* a month; that of the *bārgīrs* or riders, was 2 to 5 *pagoḍās* and that of the *śiledārs* or self-horsed cavaliers 6 to 12 *pagoḍās* a month. All plunder as well as prize was the property of government. It was brought at stated times to Śivājī's *darbār* or place of public audience and individuals formally displayed and delivered their captures. They always received

some small proportionate compensation; they were praised, distinguished and promoted according to their success. In fact to collect plunder from the enemy's ranks was usually regarded by the Marāṭhās as expressing a victory, of which in their estimation it could be the only tangible proof. The horses, especially at an advanced period of Śivājī's history, were subsisted during the fair season in the enemy's country; during the rains they were generally allowed to rest and were cantoned in different places near *kuraṇs* or pasture lands, under the protection of some fort, where the grass of the preceding season was stacked and grain prepared by the time they returned. For this purpose persons were appointed to whom rent-free lands were hereditarily assigned. The system was preserved when many of Śivājī's institutions were neglected and it proved a great aid to the success of his countrymen.

Śivājī kept the Hindu festival of the *Dasarā* with great pomp. It falls in October at the end of the south-west rains, and was particularly convenient for a general muster and review of his troops previous to their taking the field. At this time each horse was examined and an inventory and valuation of each soldier's effects were taken to be compared with what he brought back or eventually to be made good. If a horseman's effects were unavoidably lost, his horse killed, maimed or destroyed in government service they were on due proof replaced. On the other hand all plunder or articles discovered, of which no satisfactory account could be given, were carried to the credit of government, either by confiscating the article or deducting the amount from the soldier's arrears. It was at the option of the captors to keep almost any articles if fairly brought forward, valued, and paid for. The accounts were closed every year, and balances due by government were paid either in ready money or by bills on the collectors of revenue in favour of the officers, but never by separate orders on villages. The only exceptions to plunder made by Śivājī were in favour of cows, cultivators, and women; these were never to be molested nor were any but rich Muhammedans or Hindus in their service who could pay a ransom to be made prisoners. No soldier in the service of Śivājī was permitted to carry any female followers with him to the field on pain of death. His system of intelligence was the greatest check on every abuse, and his punishments were rigorous. Officers and men who had distinguished themselves, who were wounded, or who had suffered in any way, were always gratified by promotion, honour or compensation. Śivājī did not approve of the *jāgīr* or estate system; he confirmed many, but, with the exception of the establishment for his forts he seldom bestowed new military estates and gave away very few as personal assignments. *Inām* lands were granted by him as well in reward of merit as in conformity with the tenets of his faith; a gift of land, especially to Brāhmaṇs, being of all charities the most acceptable to the divinity. Śivājī's discipline, which required prompt obedience to superiors in every situation, was particularly strict in his forts. The chief person or *killedār* in

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the command of a fortress was termed *havildār* and under him there were one or more *sarnobats*. In large forts there was a *sarnobat* to guard each direction. Every fort had a head clerk and a commissary of grain and stores; the head clerk, a Brāhmaṇ was termed *sabnis*; the commissary was commonly of the Prabhu caste and was called *karkhānis*. The orders regarding ingress and egress, rounds, watches, and patrols, care of water, grain stores, and ammunition were most minute, and the head of each department was furnished with distinct rules for his guidance from which no deviation was allowed. A rigid economy characterised all Śivājī's instructions regarding expenditure. The garrison was sometimes partly composed of the common infantry. Independent of them, each fort had a separate and complete establishment. It consisted of Brāhmaṇs, Marāṭhās, Rāmośis, Mahārs and Māṅgs; the whole were termed *gaḍkaris* or fort-men. They were maintained by permanent assignments of rent-free lands in the neighbourhood of each fort, which with the care of the fort passed from father to son. The Rāmośis and Mahārs were employed on outpost duty. They brought intelligence, watched all the paths, misled inquiries, or cut off hostile stragglers. This establishment while new and vigorous was admirably suited to Śivājī's purpose as well as to the genius of the people. The *gaḍkaris* described the fort as the mother that fed them, and among other advantages, no plan could better provide for old or deserving soldiers.

Śivājī's revenue arrangements were founded on those of Dādājī Koṇḍadev, Śivājī's Brāhmaṇ manager, to whom Śivājī's education in Pooṇā was entrusted (1641). The assessments were made on the actual state of the crop, the proportionate division of which is stated to have been three-fifths to the husbandmen and two fifths to government. As soon as Śivājī got permanent possession of any territory, every species of military contribution was stopped, all farming of revenue ceased, and the collections were made by agents appointed by himself. Every two or three villages were superintended by a *kārkun* under the *tarafdār* or *tālukdār* who had charge of a small district, and was either a Brāhmaṇ or a Prabhu. A Marāṭha *havildār* was stationed with each of them. Over a considerable tract there was a *subhedār* or *māmlatdār* who had charge of one or more forts in which his collections both of grain and money were secured. Śivājī never permitted the *deśmukhs* and *deśpāṇḍes* to interfere in the management of the country; nor did he allow them to collect their dues until their amount had been ascertained, when an order was annually given for the amount. The *paṭīls*, *khots* and *kulkarṇis* were strictly superintended, and Śivājī's government, though popular with the common cultivators, would have been unpopular with village and district officers, of whom Śivājī was always jealous, had it not been for the recourse which all had of entering his military service.

The method which the ministers of the Marāṭhā government afterwards adopted, of paying the revenue of villages, is said

to have been early proposed to Śivājī. He objected to it, not only from fear of immediate oppression to the husbandmen, but from apprehending that it would in the end cause such a division of power as must weaken his government and encourage the village and district authorities to resist it as they frequently did that of Bijāpūr. With the same view he destroyed all village walls and allowed no fortification in his territory which was not occupied by his troops. Religious establishments were carefully preserved, and temples for which no provision existed had some adequate assignments granted to them, but the persons in charge were obliged to account for the expenditure. Śivājī never sequestrated any allowance fixed by the Muhammedan government for the support of tombs, mosques, or saints' shrines. The revenue regulations of Śivājī were simple and judged by the standards of those times undoubtedly judicious.

People were encouraged to clear the jungles, raise crops and revive the village *pañcāyats*. They were further assured that the authorities would not take anything more than whatever be due according to law. This persistent effort to foster the rule of law and to create an atmosphere of security endeared him to his people. It is just possible, however, that his judicious measures may not have been attended with immediate improvements and prosperity to the people as is sometimes alleged; for his districts were frequently exposed to great ravages, and he never had sufficient leisure to complete his arrangements by that persevering superintendence which alone can perfect such institutions. Still those districts taken by him from Bijāpūr which had been under the management of farmers of direct agents of government undoubtedly experienced great benefit by the change The judicial system of Śivājī in civil cases was that of *pañcāyat* or council which had invariably obtained in the country. Disputes among his soldiers were settled by their officers. He drew his criminal law from the Hindu sacred works or *Śāstras*; but as the former rulers were Musalmāns they had naturally introduced changes which custom had sanctioned and perpetuated. This accounts for the difference that long afterwards persisted between Hindu law and Marāṭhā usage.

To aid in the conduct of his government, Śivājī established eight officers; first the *Peśavā* or head manager which office was held by Moropant or Moreśvar Trimbak Piṅgle; second, the *Muzumdār* or general superintendent of finance and auditor general of accounts, which office was held by Ābājī Sondev, *subhedār* of the province of Kalyāṇ; third, the *Sūrnis* or general record-keeper, superintendent of correspondence, examiner of letters, which office was held by Aṇṇajī Datto; fourth, the *Vāknis* or private record-keeper and superintendent of the household troops and establishment, which office was held by Dattājīpant; fifth, the *Sarnobat* or the chief captain of whom there were two, Pratāprāv Gujar over the cavalry and Yesājī Kaṅk over the infantry; sixth, the *Ḍabīr* or minister for foreign affairs, an office held by Somanāthpant; seventh, the *Nyāyādhīś* or superintendent of justice an office managed by Nirān

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Rāvjī and Gomājī Nāik; and eighth the *Nyāya Śāstri* or expounder of Hindu law, an office held first by Śaṁbhu Upādhye and afterwards by Raghunāthpant.

The officers at the head of these civil situations, except the *Nyāyādhīś* and *Nyāya Śāstrī*, held military commands and frequently had no leisure to superintend their duties. All therefore were aided by deputies called *kārbhāris*, who often had power to fix the seal or mark of their principals on public documents. When so empowered they were styled *mutāliks*. Each department and every district establishment had eight subordinate officers under whom was an adequate staff of assistants. These officers were, 1st the *Kārbhāri*, *Mutālik* or *Divān*; 2nd the *Mujumdār* or auditor and accountant; 3rd the *Phadṇis* or *Phadṇavis* deputy auditor and accountant; 4th the *Sabnis* or *clery* sometimes styled *daftardār*; 5th the *Kārkhānis* or commissary; 6th the *Citṇīs* or correspondence clerk; 7th the *Jamādār* or treasurer in charge of all valuables except cash; and 8th the *Potnīs* or cash-keeper. Attached to himself, Śivājī had a treasurer, a correspondence clerk, and an accountant besides a *Farisnis* or Persian secretary. His clerk was a Prabhu named Bāḷājī Āvjī, whose astuteness and intelligence were remarked by the English at Bombay on an occasion when he was sent there on business. Balkṛṣṇapant Hanmante, a near relation of Śivājī's head manager, was Śivājī's accountant. On Śivājī's enthronement at Rāygaḍ in 1674 the names of such offices as were formerly expressed in Persian were marked by Sanskritised titles. There was only one *Nyāyādhīś* or a judge.

Saṁbhājī.

After Śivājī's death, Rājārām, his younger son was placed on the throne at Rāygaḍ by his mother Soyarābāī, who was supported by Śivājī's ministers Aṇṇājī Datto and others. They wrote letters to the *killedār* of Panhāḷā, calling upon him to keep a strict watch upon Saṁbhājī. The news of Śivājī's death could not however be long concealed from Saṁbhājī, who took possession of Panhāḷā and prepared for a march on Rāygaḍ. The Marāṭhā Commander-in-Chief, Haṁbīrrāv Mohite who was near Karhāḍ, and who probably had no intimation of the plans at Rāygaḍ went over to Saṁbhājī. In the mean time two of Śivājī's prominent ministers Moropant Piṅgle and Aṇṇājī Datto, who had supported the accession of Rājārām, were moving towards Panhāḷā, apparently to prevent Saṁbhājī from doing any mischief. Saṁbhājī however managed to capture and confine them both at Panhāḷā under a rigorous watch. Determined to put down Soyarābāī and her supporters, Saṁbhājī marched on Rāygaḍ and took possession of the capital on 18th June 1680, putting Rājārām and Soyarābāī in close confinement. In gratitude for this easy success he immediately made a formal grant to his family goddess Bhavānī of ten thousand gold *hons* a year. Matters thus appeared to move smoothly. Moropant Piṅgle died in October 1680 and Saṁbhājī appointed his son Niḷopant to *Peśavāship*. Aṇṇājī Datto was released and restored to his

office. The formal coronation ceremony was performed on 10th January 1681[1]. The disturbed atmosphere of Mahārāṣṭra appeared for a time to assume its normal tenor.

In 1681 Akbar, the son of Auraṅgzeb, rose in rebellion against his father. He was supported by the Rajputs. The rebellion failed and Akbar had to flee to the south to seek the support of Saṁbhājī who extended his hospitality and accommodated him at Pālī in Koṅkaṇ. The discomfited group of statesmen again revived their efforts and sought the support of Akbar in their designs against Saṁbhājī, who straightway communicated the whole plot to Saṁbhājī. His anger now knew no bounds with the result that he instantly put the conspirators like Aṇṇājī Datto, Bāḷājī Āvjī and Hirojī Farjand to death (August-September 1681). Soyarābāī, the mother of Rājārām, died soon after. She probably committed suicide.

Saṁbhājī was now free to pursue his struggle against the Moghals. The emperor Auraṅgzeb descended with a mighty force in the Deccan in November 1681. On the Koṅkaṇ side Saṁbhājī had to face the Sidis and the Portuguese who constantly harassed his possessions in that region, while on the Deccan plateau he had to watch the movements of the Moghals under Āzam, the son of Auraṅgzeb who had reached Auraṅgābād by that time. In the following year 1683, Moghal contingents were further strengthened by the arrival of prince Muāzzam and Śahābuddin and they planned a three pronged attack on Saṁbhājī in Koṅkaṇ, Śahābuddin penetrating from the north near Kalyāṇ, Muāzzam marching from Belgāṁv across Rāmsej-ghāṭ and joining hands with the Portuguese at Goā and thus blockading him from the south and the Sidis co-operating with both cutting off the supplies and preventing them from reaching the Marāṭhā forces which were to be trapped both from the north and the south. Simultaneously Āzam, who had just returned from a campaign in the Dhārvāḍ region, was expected to distract the attention of Saṁbhājī by carrying on a foraging campaign into Bāglāṇ. For four years Saṁbhājī incessantly faced the difficult situation. He defeated all the efforts of the Moghals, the Sidis and the Portuguese to destroy him. Akbar, the rebel prince, wanted Saṁbhājī to join him in his north Indian campaign for the conquest of Delhī; it is not surprising that Saṁbhājī could give him only token assistance. Disappointed, Akbar, thereafter proceeded to Irāṇ in February.

To turn to the Moghals; on his failure to destroy Saṁbhājī, Asad Khān decided to proceed against the Ādilśāhī and Kutb-śāhī powers, with the object of destroying them before he could turn his attention once more to Saṁbhājī. Accordingly in 1684 he ordered his army to proceed to Bijāpūr. Saṁbhājī resolved to harass Auraṅgzeb from the rear and with that object in view concentrated his forces under Kavī Kalaś at Panhāḷā. He also asked his general Haṁbīrrāv to be watchful in that region. Miraj fell to the Moghals in 1686 (March-April). Saṁbhājī's

[1]. *Magh Shudha 7, Shiva Charitra Pradip*, p. 31.

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efforts to distract the attention of Auraṅgzeb in. this manner, however, did not prove effective. Auraṅgzeb was able to capture Bijāpūr towards the end of 1687. He was now free to concentrate all his might against Saṁbhājī. While Auraṅgzeb was away at Golconḍa, the Moghals invaded Sātārā district. Khānāzād Khān had been sent towards Miraj and Kādirdād Khān had been appointed *killedār* of Miraj. Saṁbhājī's *senāpatī* Hambīrrāv Mohite opposed him. An action was fought between them near Wāī towards the end of 1687 in which Hambīrrāv lost his life on the battle field. In 1688 Auraṅgzeb sent considerable forces under Āzam, against Saṁbhājī. Gāzi-ud-din Firoz Juṅg too marched against the Marāṭhā ruler. Auraṅgzeb himself left Bijāpūr at the end of 1688 and marched into Mahārāṣṭra. While he was camping at Akluj in February 1689 the news of the dramatic capture of Saṁbhājī by the Moghal general Śaikh Nizām Muqarrab Khān was communicated to him.

The hilly region below the Sahyādrī range between Kolhāpūr and Sātārā were long held by the Śirkes who had now turned against Saṁbhājī. They now played their game, watched Saṁbhājī's movements and communicated them to the Moghal officers. For about a year after Haṁbīrrāv's death Saṁbhājī and Kavī Kalaś struggled as best as they could. In November 1688 Saṁbhājī having learned that the Śirkes had attacked Kavī Kalaś and forced him to run away to Viśālgaḍ for protection, rushed against them, forced them to flee and joined Kavī Kalaś at Viśālgaḍ. Although the Śirkes were defeated, they had come to know of the movements of Saṁbhājī. They lost no time in communicating them to the Moghals. On the 1st February 1689, Saṁbhājī and Kavī Kalaś started from Viśālgaḍ and on their way to Rāygaḍ halted at Saṅgameśvar. No sooner was this known than Śaikh Nizām, the Moghal general, who was investing Panhāḷā lost no time in rushing thither from Kolhāpūr. He seized them both alive, while their followers fled to Rāygaḍ. Śaikh Nizām seated Saṁbhāji on his own elephant and the other captives were accommodated on horses and camels, all moving towards the Emperor's camp. Auraṅgzeb had marched from Akluj to Bahādurgaḍ where the captives were presented before him. They were subjected to disgrace and severe ill-treatment. Saṁbhājī was blinded on the 14th February 1689 and put to death in the imperial camp at Koregāṅv on 11th March 1689, the *Amāvāsyā* day of *Phālguna, Śaka* 1610.

Rājārām.

At Rāygaḍ, on the news of his death, his younger brother Rājārām was declared regent during the minority of Saṁbhājī's son Śivājī afterwards known as Śāhū. In October 1689 Rāygaḍ, the Marāṭhā capital, fell to the Moghals and young Śivājī and his mother Yesubāī were made prisoners and taken to the Moghal camp. Undaunted by these calamities the Marāṭhās resolved to fight with the Moghals by dividing their own forces and thus widely extending the field of military operations. Rājārām moved from place to place until he reached Jiñjī, about eighty

miles south-west of Madrās in November 1689. Before leaving for the south, Rājārām entrusted the conduct of all operations, military and administrative, in western Mahārāṣṭra to Rāmcandrapant Amātya. With him were associated Śankrājī Nārāyaṇ Sacīv and the celebrated generals Santājī Ghorpaḍe and Dhanājī Jādhav. Paraśurāmpant Pratinidhī too came to be associated with Rāmcandrapant.

On the arrival of Rājārām at Jiñjī, Auraṅgzeb was forced to send a large force under Zulfiqār Khān to the south. Later the prince Kāmbakṣ and the prime minister Asad Khān joined Zulfiqār Khān at the end of 1691. Auraṅgzeb himself moved out of Mahārāṣṭra and fixed his camp at Galgalī in the district of Bijāpūr while prince Āzam was posted on the borders of Tāmiḷnāḍ.

The Marāṭhās under their generals Santājī Ghorpaḍe and Dhanājī Jādhav perfected the system of guerilla warfare. They fell on Moghal military outposts, blocked roads, destroyed provisions and surprised the forts captured by the Moghals. The Marathās were incessantly on the move. They threw in a number of daring leaders such as Haṇumantrāv Nimbāḷkar and Nemājī Śinde.

It was Santājī Ghorpaḍe, however, who dealt mighty blows to the Moghals. In battle after battle he defeated the Moghal generals sent against him, such as Muqarrab Khān, Śarjā Khān *alias* Mardān Khān, Khānāzād Khān, Qāsiṃ Khān and others. The Marāṭhās spread throughout the south. Well-equipped Marāṭhā armies led by Dhanājī and Santājī marched to the relief of Jiñjī. It was only in 1698 that Jiñjī fell to the Moghals. Rājārām returned to Mahārāṣṭra to continue the struggle against the Moghals. The Marāṭhās now began to move north towards Bihār, Khāndeś, Gujarāt and Māḷvā. Auraṅgzeb who had in 1694 fixed his camp at Brahmapurī (Śolapūr district) now decided to march in person against the Marāṭhā forts. Auraṅgzeb left his camp at Brahmapurī on 19th October 1699 and reached Miraj after 20 days. Here prince Muhammad Āzam paid his courtesy call on the Emperor. Bedārbakht was at the time at Miraj. He was sent to pursue Rājārām. The Emperor ordered that all the territory between Sātārā and Panhāḷā should be devastated. This was done by Ruhullā Khān and Hamid-ud-din Khān. In 1698 Rājārām remained for a short time at Sātārā which he made the seat of government. In 1699 he marched north, intending to raid Berar. He was however checked near Pareṇḍā and forced to return. Auraṅgzeb left Miraj and encamped under the fort of Vasantgaḍ about seven miles north-west of Karhād. Batteries were prepared and in three days the garrison surrendered on 25th November 1699. The Emperor named the fort *Kilid-e-fateh* or the Key of Victory. Auraṅgzeb then marched to Sātārā, a movement wholly unexpected by the Marāṭhās, who filled with the idea that Panhāḷā in Kolhāpūr was about to be besieged, had directed all their preparations

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towards its defence. The provisions in Sātārā fort were not enough to stand more than a two months' siege. Sātārā was besieged. The fort surrendered on 21st April 1700. Immediately on the fall of Sātārā, Paraḷī was invested. The siege lasted till the beginning of June, when, after a good defence, the garrison left the fort. The fort was called by the Emperor Nauras Tārā. As the south-west monsoon burst with great violence, the Moghal army, suffered much distress and hardship before the camp could be moved from the hills. After much loss of men and animals, the army reached Khavāspūr on the banks of the Māṇ in Sātārā. Here Auraṅgzeb ordered Bedārbakht to proceed towards Miraj with a view to capture Panhāḷā. Zulfiqār Khān was instructed to reinforce the prince. He accordingly went to Miraj and met the prince and both proceeded towards Panhāḷā. The Emperor, subsequently (1st January 1701), reached Miraj from Khavāspūr. At Miraj Bakśi Mukhalis Khān died on 3rd January 1701. The Emperor stayed at Miraj for the whole month of *Ramzān*. Dhanājī, the Marāṭhā general, attacked the Emperor's camp. The Emperor dispatched Hamid-ud-din Khān and Munim Khān to counter the Marāṭhā attack. Severe engagements took place. On the report that Zulfiqār Khān was marching against them, Marāṭhās dispersed. The Emperor then left Miraj and reached Panhāḷā on 9th March 1701. After the capture of Panhāḷā and Viśāḷgaḍ, the Emperor proceeded to Bahādurgaḍ. On 2nd December 1702 he marched for the capture of Kondāṇā and ordered Fateullāh Khān to bring the artillery used for the capture of Viśāḷgaḍ. At Rahimatpūr the Khān was attacked by the Marāṭhās. Zulfiqār Khān was ordered to help Fateullāh. After rescuing Fateullāh, Zulfiqār Khān marched against Dhanājī. He reached Miraj and proceeded further when he got the news that Dhanājī, the Marāṭhā commander, intended to attack Cin Kilic Khān, the newly appointed *subhedār* of Bijāpūr. Zulfiqār Khān reached in time to help Cin Kilic Khān on hearing which Dhanājī marched towards Gulbargā.

Tārābāī's Regency.

Rājārām had died at Sinhagāḍ near Pooṇā on 2nd March 1700, more than a month before the fall of Sātārā. The news of Rājārām's death was received in the Emperor's camp at Sātārā with great rejoicing. Tārābāī, Rājārām's elder widow, assumed the government for her son Śivājī, a boy of ten. She carried on the struggle with great vigour.

The forts of Koṇḍāṇā (Sinhagaḍ), Rājgaḍ and Torṇā were captured by Auraṅgzeb who in 1704 marched to Bidar country in Gulbargā district. After the conquest of Vākinkheḍā, he returned to Ahmadnagar in 1706. The Marāṭhās had now spread in Gujarāt and Māḷvā. They had also recaptured a number of forts in their homeland. Vasantgaḍ fell to the Marāṭhās in 1705 A.D. It was taken by the *Pratinidhī* Paraśurām Trimbak. The year 1706 saw running battles fought between the Marāṭhā-Moghal forces. Zulfiqār Khān pursued the Marāṭhās from Auraṅgābād to Miraj traversing the districts

of Bīḍ, Parbhaṇī, Osmānābād, Solāpūr and Sāṅglī. Due to the rainy season Zulfiqār Khān camped at a distance of 12 *kos* from Miraj. His army suffered greatly from lack of provisions. Rains over, he again started the pursuit of the Marāṭhā army. In the same year Māndhātā, the son of Rāv Kānhu Śirke who was a nobleman of Zulfiqār Khān promised to capture Mahimantgaḍ (Hanumantgaḍ) and Parikṣitgaḍ (Prasiddhagaḍ) in one year. The Moghals however received setbacks everywhere and during the lifetime of Auraṅgzeb, most of the forts captured by the Moghals fell to the Marāṭhās. Auraṅgzeb, disappointed and frustrated in his dream of subjugating the Deccan retired to Ahmadnager where he died on 20th February 1707[1]. In 1707, Tārābāī made Panhāḷā her headquarters.

Śāhū.

After the death of Auraṅgzeb, Āzam, the second son of Auraṅgzeb, marched to the north to contest the throne. On the way, Śāhū, the son of Saṁbhājī was allowed to leave the Moghal camp in May 1707 and proceed to the Deccan. The Marāṭhās immediately recovered Sātārā, Paraḷī, Panhāḷā, Sinhagaḍ, Rāygaḍ, Purandar and other forts. On Śāhū's approach Tārābāī, unwilling to lose the power she had so long held, pretended to believe him an impostor and determined to oppose him. The first encounter between Śāhū and Tārābāī's forces under Dhanājī Jādhav and Paraśurāmpant *Pratinidhi* took place at Kheḍ where Śāhū got an easy victory on 12th October 1707, as Dhanājī feeling that Śāhū's cause was just, did not fight and the *Pratinidhi* finding himself single-handed withdrew from the field and fled to Sātārā. Śāhū proceeded towards Śirvaḷ which guarded the way towards Rohiḍā fort. Rohiḍā surrendered. Śāhū further proceeded to the south and took Candan Vandan. Tārābāī now assigned the task of defending Sātārā to *Pratinidhi* and herself fled to Panhāḷā for security and thence subsequently to Mālvaṇ. Śāhū approached Sātārā and on gaining possession of Sātārā formally seated himself on the throne on 12th January 1708.

The following appointments were made by him to the Ministry:—

Peśavā: Bahiro Moreśvar.

Senāpati: Dhanājī Jādhav.

Saciv : Nāro Śaṅkar (minor) Mutālik Pantājī Śivdev.

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[1] At the time of the death of Aurangzeb the Deccan was divided into six *subhas* (provinces) *viz.*, Khandesh, Berar, Aurangabad, Bidar, Bijapur and Hyderabad. Miraj (Murtazabad) district formed part of the Bijapur province which was composed of two sub-provinces and which besides Miraj included Akluj (Asadnagar), Raibag, Naldurg, Dabhol (Mustafabad) and Pannala (Nabishah Durg), districts now in Maharashtra. Miraj at that time was the headquarters of the district and was divided into six talukas and had 225 villages. The total revenue of the Miraj district was Rs. 5,57,359. It may be noted here that the revenue returns were monthly and not annual and thus the annual revenue returns of the district would amount to Rs. 11,14,714.

Amātya: Bālkṛṣṇa Vāsudev *alias* Aṁburāv Hanumante, Mutālik Bāḷājī Viśvanāth and later Mahādajī Gadādhar.

Sumant: Mahādajī Gadādhar—Later Ānandrāv Raghunāth.

Mantri: Rāmcandrapant Puṇḍe—Later Rāmcandra Trimbak and Nāro Rām.

Nyayadhish: Honājī Anant.

Paṇḍitrāv: Mahādajī Gadādhar—Later Mudgalbhaṭ Upādhye.

Pratinidhī : Gadādhar Pralhād (removed on 16-12-1710 for incompetency and replaced by Paraśurām Trimbak).

It may here be noted that Dhanājī had the right of making collections in several districts.

In the prevailing confusion the revenue was realised on no fixed principle, but was levied as opportunity presented itself in the manner of contribution. The principal writers employed by Dhanājī in revenue affairs were Ābājī Purandare, accountant of Sāsvaḍ near Pooṇā, and another Brāhmaṇ accountant originally belonging to Śrivardhan in Jañjirā, a village claimed by the Sidi, which he had left for a career as early as in 1689 if not earlier. In the course of his activities he came to be associated with Purandares of Sāsvaḍ and was recommended to Dhanājī by Ābājī Purandare and Paraśurām Trimbak. The name of the Śrivardhan accountant, afterwards famous as the founder of the *Peśavā's* power, was Bāḷājī Viśvanāth Bhaṭ. Shortly afterwards, Dhanājī Jādhav was deputed towards Khāndeś for fighting with the Moghals (1708) and Śāhū himself proceeded to the south towards Panhāḷā and Viśāḷgaḍ. Having captured the forts he turned his attention towards Rāṅgṇā (March-June 1708) which was defended by Rāmcandrapant on behalf of Tārābāī. On the approach of the rainy season Śāhū's army was cantoned at Panhāḷā (27th June 1708). Dhanājī however was not destined to see him as he met his death at Vaḍgāṅv on the banks of the river Varnā, while returning from his Khāndeś campaign (June 1708). During this period Śāhū neglected no preparations to enable him to reduce his rival.

At the opening of the fair season, after the *Dasarā* festival, preparations were made to renew the war against Tārābāī (1709). About this time an agreement with the Moghals waived the question of hereditary claim and made the reduction of Tārābāī less important to Śāhū. Dāud Khān Panni (1708-1713), whom Zulfiqār Khān left as his deputy in the Deccan, settled with such Marāṭhā chiefs as acknowledged Śāhū's authority, with certain reservations, to allow them one-fourth of the revenue, at the same time reserving the right of collecting and paying it through his own agents. Dāud Khān's intimacy with most of the Marāṭhā chiefs, his connection with Zulfiqār Khān, and the terms of friendship between Zulfiqār and Śāhū, not only preserved Śāhū's ascendancy, but, except in instances where independent plundering bands occasionally appeared, secured a fairly

correct observance of the terms of the agreement. At the close of 1709 Śāhū returned to Sātārā. During this period Bāļāji Viśvanāth always acted as the right-hand man of Śāhū. This brought on Bāļājī the keen jealousy of Dhanājī's son Candrasen Jādhav, and of several others in his service. In 1710, the army had scarcely returned to Sātārā, when Tārābāī encouraged by the commandant of Panhāļā marched from Mālvaṇ in Ratnāgirī reinforced by the troops of Phoṇḍ Savant, and returned to Panhāļā. Her hopes were now raised as Candrasen Jādhav left Śāhū and joined Tārābāī. She held her position firmly at Panhāļā and Śāhū was in no mood to disturb her: but in 1714 in a *coup d'etat* at Kolhāpūr Tārābāī and her son Śivājī were put into prison and Rājasbāī and her son Saṁbhājī seized power (July 1714). Rāmcandrapant exerted himself with renewed vigour to reorganise the administration at Kolhāpūr and uphold the claims of Saṁbhājī as a rival to Śāhū. Still so long as Dāud Khān's government continued Śāhū was assured of Moghal support. He was surrounded by most of the experienced ministers and had acquired a name for himself by his conciliatory disposition. He had won over the *Saciv* to his side. He was not however equally successful in binding to his interest all the members of the *Pratinidhī's* family. In 1713, Śāhū released Paraśurām Triṁbak (he was imprisoned for his refusal to surrender Sātārā to Śāhū in 1707), restored his honours by the removal of Gadādhar Pralhād, and confirmed him in his formal charge of Viśāļgaḍ and its dependencies. The *Pratinidhī* sent his eldest son Kṛṣṇājī Bhāskar to assume the management of the fort and the district, but he had no sooner obtained possession than he revolted, tendered his services to Saṁbhājī and was made *Pratinidhī* at Kolhāpūr. On this defection Paraśurām Triṁbak was again thrown into confinement, and Śāhū, under the belief that the revolt had been encouraged by him, intended to have him put to death. He was, however dissuaded from doing so by the timely mediation of Khaṇḍo Ballāļ. In consequence of changes at the imperial court, Dāud Khān was removed from the government of the Deccan and agreement between the Moghals and the Marāṭhās ceased to exist. Candrasen Jadhav, who on the death of his father Dhanājī Jādhav had been appointed the Commander-in-Chief, was sent from Sātārā with considerable army and directed to levy the *cauth, sardeśmukhi,* and *ghāsdāṇā* from the Moghal districts. He was attended by his father's accountant Bāļājī Viśvanāth who was now charged with collecting and appropriating a share of the revenue for Śāhū, a situation of control which, under no circumstances, was likely to be favourably viewed by Candrasen. A quarrel ensued between the two. When Śāhū heard of this he carefully considered the whole case and resolved to extend protection to Bāļājī. In the conflict that followed Candrasen was defeated by Haibatrāv Niṁbāļkar, the *Sarlaṣkar* 1711. Candrasen retired to Kolhāpūr, and from Kolhāpūr he went to meet Cin Kilic Khān Nizām-ul-mulk, the Moghal viceroy of the Deccan in 1713 A.D., by whom he was well

received and rewarded. Candrasen, who wanted to take revenge and Nizām-ul-mulk, who was disposed to favour the cause of Saṁbhājī and desirous of suppressing the ravages of Śāhū's officers, sent an army against Haibatrāv. To support the latter, Śāhū sent forward a body of troops under Bāḷājī Viśvanāth whom he now dignified with the title of *Senā karte* i.e., organiser of the army. A battle was fought near Purandar in Pooṇā, in which the advantage claimed by the Marāṭhās is contradicted by their subsequent retreat to the Sālpā pass twenty miles south of Purandar. A detachment of Marāṭhās from the Moghal army took possession of the Pooṇā district. At length an accommodation was made, hostilities ceased, and the Moghals returned to Auraṅgābād. The Emperor appointed Śāhū to the command of 10,000 horse. During the rains of 1714 the Marāṭhās resumed their activities. The *deśmukhs* and *deśpāṇḍes* in the Moghal districts of Mahārāṣṭra fortified their villages on pretence of defending themselves, but they frequently joined or aided their countrymen of whatever party in escape, defence, and concealment.

As Nizām-ul-mulk favoured the Kolhāpūr party, Saṁbhājī's influence rose and Śāhū's fell. The Ghorpaḍes, both of Kāpśī and Mudhoḷ, joined the Kolhāpūr party. Śidojī Ghorpaḍe, the son of Bahirjī and nephew of the famous Santājī also declared for Saṁbhājī but, along with his ally Navāb of Sāvnūr was too intent on his schemes of conquest and plunder to quit the Karnāṭak. Kṛṣṇarāv Khaṭāvkar, raised to power by the Moghals, took post about the Mahādev hills within Sātārā limits, and without joining either Sātārā or Kolhāpūr plundered the country on his own account (1711). Damājī Thorāt, a lawless upstart of the Kolhāpūr party who acknowledged no chief but his old patron Rāmcandrapant, levied contributions in Pooṇā (1716—1718). Udājī Cavhān, another of Rāmcandrapant's officers took the mud fort of Battis Śirāḷā about twenty miles south of Karhāḍ, and in a short time became so formidable that Śāhū was glad to enter into a compromise by conceding the *cauth* of Śirāḷā and Karhāḍ, which Udājī long continued to receive as a personal allowance. Several other Marāṭhā chiefs declared for Saṁbhājī. Among these the most formidable was Kānhojī Āṅgre who then held the coast from Sāvantvāḍī to Bombay, and was spreading his power over the province of Kalyān in Ṭhāṇā. Bāḷājī Viśvanāth instilled some vigour into his councils and began to lead in public affairs. Dāmājī though initially could not be subdued was ultimately reduced (May-June 1718). Kṛṣṇarāv was also suppressed (December 1711). Bāḷājī by skill and diplomacy won over Kānhojī Āṅgre to Śahu's side and he was made the commander of the Marāṭhā navy (February 1714).

Peśavā Bāḷājī Viśvanāth.

As Bāḷājī performed this service entirely to Śāhū's wishes, on his return to Sātārā he was received with great distinction, and in consequence of the failure of Bahiropant Piṅgle, that minister was removed from the dignity of *Mukhya Pradhān* and Bāḷājī appointed *Peśavā* in his stead. His friend Ābājī Purandare was confirmed as his chief agent or *mutālik* and Rāmajīpant Bhānū,

an ancestor of the celebrated Nānā Phaḍṇavis as his *phaḍṇavis*. After the desertion of Candrasen Jādhav, Mānājī More had received clothes of investiture as Commander-in-Chief or *senāpati* (1712), but failed to perform the services which were expected of him. He was now ordered, with Haibatrāv Nimbāḷkar, to accompany Bāḷājī into the Pooṇā district. to reduce Damājī Thorāt. The force assembled by Bāḷājī at this time was too powerful for Thorāt. His fort was stormed and destroyed and he himself made prisoner.

The *Peśavā* induced the Moghal agent in the Pooṇā district, a Marāṭhā named Bājī Kaḍam, to make over the superior authority to him, on the promise that Rambhājī Nimbāḷkar's *jāgīr* should be respected.

In all quarters Marāṭhā affairs began to improve. The influence of Bāḷājī Viśvanāth continued to increase and no affair of importance was undertaken without his advice.

The ministry as far as practicable was composed of the old retainers, and the posts of those who adhered to the Kolhāpūr party were conferred on their near relations.

Śāhū was not without ability. He was naturally generous, liberal to all religious establishments, observant of the forms enjoined by the Hindu faith, and particularly charitable to Brāhmaṇs. The hilly West Deccan and the rugged Koṅkaṇ were his birthright, but as his childhood was pleasantly spent in the pomp and luxury of the Moghal camp he had developed easy going habits. He occasionally showed violence and for a time anger overcame his indolence. In general, however, he was satisfied with the respect and homage paid to his person and the obedience which his ministers invariably professed to his commands. He was pleased at being free from the drudgery of business and in giving himself up to his fondness for hawking, hunting, and fishing. He did not foresee that he was delegating a power which might supersede his own. As he was the legitimate head of the Marāṭhās, the importance of that nation was increased by the manner in which he was courted by the Moghals; and the dignities and rights conferred upon him in consequence of his position gave an influence and respect to the name of Śāhū, which under other circumstances he could never have attained.

In 1715 Farrukhsiyār, the emperor of Delhi, becoming jealous of the Sayyad brothers to whom he owed his elevation, appointed Sayyad Husain Ali Khān to the viceroyalty of the Deccan (May 1715, November 1718), in the hope that by separating the brothers he could weaken their power and compass their destruction. In January 1717, Khaṇḍerāv Dābhāḍe, who had established a line of posts along the Surat-Burhānpūr route and defeated two large Moghal armies, went to Sātārā, paid his respects to Śāhū, and was raised to the rank of *senāpatī* of the empire, Mānājī More being removed for inability and misconduct. The Marāṭhā officers encouraged by their success and

CHAPTER 2. History. MARATHA PERIOD. Śāhū. *Peśavā Bāḷājī Viśvanāth.*

by the secret overtures of Farrukhsiyār now extended their encroachments, and in addition to the *cauth* which they had agreed to receive from Dāud Khān in lieu of all claims, they everywhere levied the *sardeśmukhi.* Under these circumstances the Deccan Government of Sayyad Husain Ali Khān, distracted by Marāthā depredations on one side and court intrigues on the other, had recourse to negotiations with Śāhū. Śaṅkarājī Malhār originally a writer under Śivājī and appointed *Saciv* by Rājārām at Jiñjī, had retired during the siege of that place to Benares. Tired of a life so little in accord with his former habits although a very old man, Śaṅkarājī took service with Husain Ali Khān when he was appointed to the Deccan. He soon gained the confidence of his master, and at an early period entered into a correspondence with his friends at Sātārā. He represented to the viceroy that if the Marāṭhā claims were recognised, they would have an interest in the prosperity of the country; that this was the only way to restore tranquillity and a certain means of gaining powerful allies by whose aid he might rest secure from present intrigues and eventually defy the avowed hostility of the Emperor. Husain Ali approving of these views sent Śaṅkarājī Malhār to Sātārā to arrange an alliance between the Moghals and the Marāṭhās. This mission opened a great prospect to the aspiring mind of Bāḷājī Viśvanāth. Besides the *cauth* and *sardeśmukhi* of the six *subhās* of the Deccan including the Bijāpūr and Hyderābād, Karnāṭak, with the tributary States of Mysore, Trichinopoli and Tanjore, Sāhū demanded the whole of the territory in Mahārāṣṭra which had belonged to Śivājī with the exception of his possessions in Khāndeś, and in lieu of Khāndeś, territory near the old districts as far as Paṇḍharpūr was to be substituted. The forts of Śivnerī in Pooṇā and of Trimbak in Nāśik were also to be given up. The old districts in the Karnāṭak were also demanded, and confirmation of some conquests lately made by Kānhojī Bhosle, the *Senā Sāheb Subhā* in Goṇḍvan and Berār. Lastly the mother and family of Śāhū were to be sent from Delhi as soon as practicable. On these conditions Śāhū promised to pay to the imperial treasury, for the old territory a yearly *peṣkaś* or tribute of Rs. 10 lakhs; for the *sardeśmukhi* or ten per cent of the whole revenue he bound himself to protect the country, to put down every form of disorder, to bring thieves to punishment to restore the stolen property, and to pay the usual fee of 651 per cent on the annual income for the hereditary right of *sardeśmukhi;* for the grant of *cauth* no fee was to be paid, but he agreed to maintain a body of 15,000 horse in the emperor's service, to be placed at the disposal of the *subhedārs, faujdārs* and officers in different districts. The Karnāṭak and the *subhās* of Bijāpūr and Hyderābād which were then overrun by the partisans of Sambhājī *Rājā* of Kolhāpūr, Śāhū promised to clear of plunderers, and to make good every loss sustained by the people of those provinces after the final settlement of the treaty. Śaṅkarājī Malhār had already sufficiently proved the desire to forward the interests of his countrymen, and Śāhū appointed

him (1717) to conclude the terms, which, according to the above proposals, were with some exception conceded by Husain Ali Khān (1718).

The territory and forts not under the viceroy's control were to be recovered at some season of leisure or in any manner which Śāhū might think fit. Meanwhile a body of 10,000 horse were sent to join the viceroy. Santājī and Rāṇojī Bhosle, relations of the *Senā Sāheb Subhā*, Udājī Pavār, Viśvāsrāv and several other commanders were detached in charge of the Marāṭhā troops for this duty. At the same time agents were sent to inquire into the state of the districts and collect the extensive shares of revenue now assigned to them, while the ministers were devising a system, for realising their claims which it was by no means so easy to realise. At the time when negotiations were going on between the Sayyads and the Marāṭhās for a political and territorial settlement in the Deccan, the Marāṭhā forces were busy during 1718-1720 in liberating the *Svarājya* territory and encountering the opposition of Marāṭhā deserters and Moghal officers at different places. Pardullā Khān was the Moghal officer at Karhāḍ. He refused to submit. The Thorāt brothers were also ravaging the territory on both sides of the Vārṇā river. At the end of the rainy season of 1718 Śāhū with Bāḷājī opened a campaign against Karhāḍ and captured both Karhāḍ and Islāmpūr from Pardullā Khān. The fort of Yelāvī was also captured from Sidoji Thorāt. On Śahū's return the Thorāt brothers with the help of Saṁbhājī took possession of Vadgāṅv, Śirāḷe and Aṣṭā. Bāḷājī was at that time camping at Islāmpūr. He requested Śāhū for reinforcements. Fatehsingh Bhosle and Śrinivāsrāv Pratinidhī were accordingly dispatched. A battle was fought between the opposing forces in which Śāhū's troops won a decisive victory.

The Emperor refused (1718) to ratify the treaty. An unworthy favourite encouraged him in his intrigues for the destruction of the Sayyads, he became less guarded in his measures, and an open rupture seemed inevitable. Husain Ali Khān prepared to march for the capital and solicited aid from Śāhū. He also pretended to receive from Śāhū a son of Sultān Muhammad Akbar, Muin-ud-din by name, then residing at the Marāṭhā court. Such an opportunity was not neglected. Bāḷājī Viśvanāth and Khaṇḍerāv Dābhāḍe proceeded to join the viceroy with a large body of troops, for which he agreed to pay them a certain sum daily from the date of their crossing the Narmadā until their return (November 1718-July 1719). Husain Ali Khān further promised that the treaty should be ratified and the family of Śāhū released and delivered to his officers. On his departure Śāhū instructed Bāḷājī Viśvanāth to endeavour to obtain the cession of the forts of Daulatābād and Cāndā and authority to levy the tribute which had for some time been imposed by the Marāṭhās in Gujarāt and Māḷvā. The reason for this apparently extraordinary demand was that the chief who had already levied contributions in those provinces would

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break in and plunder, unless Śāhū could receive such an authority as must oblige them to look to him only for what they termed their established contributions, and that under these circumstances Śāhū would be responsible for the protection and improvement of their territories. The combined army marched to Delhī where the wretched emperor Farrukhsiyār, after some tumult, was confined by the Sayyads (February 1719) and later put to death. Two princes of the line succeeded and died within seven months. Rośan Akhtar, the grandson of Sultān Muāzzam was then raised (September 1719) to the imperial dignity with the title of Muhammad Śāh, but the two Sayyads held all the power. Bāḷājī Viśvanāth and his Marāṭhās remained at Delhī until the accession of Muhammad Śāh (1720). During the tumult which preceded the confinement of Farrukhsiyār, Santājī Bhosle and 1,500 of his men were killed by the populace in the streets of Delhī. The army was paid by the Sayyads, according to agreement, and Śāhū's mother and family were given over to Bāḷājī Viśvanāth. As both the *Peśavā* and the *senāpati* were anxious to return to the Deccan they were allowed to leave, and in accordance with the treaty with Husain Ali Khān, they received three imperial grants for the *cauth, sardeśmukhi* and *svarājya*[1]. The *cauth* or one-fourth of the whole revenue of the six *subhās* of the Deccan including the Hyderābād and Bijāpūr Karnāṭak and the tributary States of Tañjore, Trichinopoli and Mysore[2], the *sardeśmukhi* or ten per cent over and above the *cauth*[3]; and the *svarājya*, literally, Self-Rule, that is the districts held by Śivājī at the time of his death,

[1] Grant Duff's *Marathas*, Vol. I, 337-38. When Grant Duff wrote (1826) the original grants were in the possession of the *Raja* of Satara. They were in the name of Muhammad Shah, dated in the first year of his reign A. H. 1131 (A.D. 1719). The emperor Muhammad Shah was not placed on the throne till 1720. During the months that intervened between the dethronement of Farrukhsiyar and his elevation, two princes had filled the throne whose names were expunged from the records.

[2] The deed for the *chauth*, dated 22nd Rabi-ul-Akhir A.H. 1131 granted to Shahu the fourth of the revenue of the six *subhas* of the Deccan simply on condition that he should maintain 15,000 horse to aid the military governors keeping order. Grant Duff's *Marathas*, Vol. I, p. 337 note.

[3] The *sardeshmukhi* grant is dated 4th Jamadi-ul-Aval or twelve days after that of the *chauth*. It does not specify in the body of the deed that it is granted as an hereditary right; but the customary fee on such occasions is stated on the back of the instrument as follows :—

Subha (1)	Revenue (2) Rs.	a.	p.
Aurangabad	1,23,76,042	11	3
Berar	1,15,23,508	14	3
Bidar	74,91,879	12	3
Bijapur	7,85,08,560	14	1
Hyderabad	6,48,67,483	0	0
Khandesh	57,49,819	0	0
Total	18,05,17,294	3	10

The *sardeshmukhi* was estimated at Rs. 1,80,51,730. *Peshkash* or established fee on hereditary rights conferred, 651 per cent, amounted to Rs. 11,75,16,762; the immediate payment on delivering the deed to one-fourth or Rs. 2,93,79,190-8-0; the remainder payable by instalments to Rs. 8,81,37,571-8-0; the fee so calculated was commuted to Rs. 1,17,19,390 in consequence of the depopulated state of the country. Grant Duff's *Marathas*, Vol. I, p. 338. (Foot-note).

which were granted to Śāhū, excepting the detached possessions in Khāndeś, the fort of Trimbak with the adjoining district, and the conquests south of the Vardhā and the Tuṅgabhadrā rivers, which were not ceded. In lieu of such of these claims as lay to the north of the Bhīmā, districts beyond the line of forts from Tāthvaḍ to Macchindragaḍ in Sātārā, as far east as Paṇḍharpūr, were wholly ceded to Śāhū, and also those districts which Auraṅgzeb had promised him at the time of his marriage in that Emperor's camp. The country watered by the Yerlā, Māṇ, and Nīrā, celebrated for good horses and hardy men, the home of some of the oldest families in Mahārāṣṭra, who had not hitherto formally acknowledged the descendants of Śivājī, including the whole of the district of Sātārā, was by this cession placed under Śāhū's authority[1]. The Marāṭhās pretended that the conquests of Berār by Parsojī and Kānhojī Bhosle, and their right to tribute in Gujarāt and Māḷvā were confirmed at the same time; but though some very indefinite verbal promise may have been given and Bāḷājī Viśvanāth left an agent for the purpose, as is alleged, of receiving the *sanads*, subsequent events prove the unwillingness of Delhi authorities to implement the understanding.

The absence of Bāḷājī from Sātārā encouraged Thorāt, then under Saṁbhājī's protection, to carry out his depredatory activities. After his return from Delhī Śāhū and Bāḷājī in November 1719 marched against Saṁbhājī. The forts of Aṣṭā and Yelāvī were captured. Thorāt (Yeśvantrāv) was pursued towards Panhāḷā and killed in an action. Bāḷājī. subsequently laid siege to Kolhāpūr. In the December of 1719 Bāḷājī was camping at Beḷgāṁv and Rukaḍī. He then proceeded towards Tāraḷā and Digraj in the early months of 1720. An action was fought between his forces and Saṁbhājī at Urunvāhe on 20th March 1720. Bāḷājī then returned to Sātārā.

When Bāḷājī Viśvanāth started for Delhī, he had left his *divāṇ* Ābājī Purandare as his *mutālik* or deputy in charge of his seal of office, and the duties of *Peśavā* continued to be carried on at the Marāṭhā court in Bāḷājī's name. On Bāḷājī's return to Sātārā with the imperial deed the scheme for collecting and distributing the revenue which all admit to have been projected by Bāḷājī was examined, and the system which had already been partially introduced was now openly accepted. The *sardeś-mukhi* or ten per cent on the revenue of the *subhās* of the Deccan was first set aside and termed by the ministers the *Rājā's vatan*, a gratifying sound to the ears of a Marāṭhā whether prince or peasant. The imposition of the *sardeśmukhi* reduced to a proportionate degree the actual collections from a

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[1] The following is a list of the sixteen districts included in the grant of *swarajya*, Poona, Supa, including Baramati, Indapur, Wai, the Mavals, Satara, Karhad, Khatav, Man, Phaltan, Malkapur, Tarla, Panhala, Ajra, Junnar and Kolhapur; the *parganas* north of the Tungabhadra including Kopal, Gadag, Haliyal and all the forts which were captured by Shivaji; the Konkan including Ramnagar, Gandevi, Jawhar, Choul, Bhiwandi, Kalyan, Rajpuri, Dabhol, Javlim Rajapur, Phonda, Ankola, and Kudal. Grant Duff's *Marathas*, Vol. 1, 338.

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country the resources of which were already drained to the utmost, but the nominal revenue continued to be the same. To have collected even one-fourth of the standard assessment would probably at this period have been impossible but the Marāṭhās in all situations endeavoured to secure, in lieu of their *cauth,* at least twenty-five per cent of the real balances. Although they seldom could collect it, they always stated the *cauth* as due upon the *tankhā* or standard assessment, because of their anxiety to maintain the dignity of what after all, came to be a paper transaction, but which always gave them a legal excuse to press their claims of receiving their dues in full. In regard to the *sardeśmukhi,* it suited both their foreign and domestic policy to keep that claim undefined; but their system in practice, that of exacting as much as they could, was as simple as it was invariable. Of the seventy-five per cent which remained to the Moghals, one-third or twenty-five per cent was received according to established usage by the *fauzdār,* and the balance was collected sometimes for the imperial exchequer, but generally on account of some *jāgīrdār,* to whom most of the Moghal conquests in the Deccan were assigned for the support of troops. This general mode of appropriating the revenue explains the seizures, resumptions and cessions of territory under the name of *jāgīr* during the later wars in the Deccan between the Nizām and the *Peśavā.* It likewise explains the practice which prevailed in many villages, even up to the British conquests, of bringing fifty per cent of the net revenue to account under the head of *jāgīr,* for which the *kulkarṇī* in less than a century could assign no reason except the custom of their forefathers. The term *svarājya* or Self-Rule, which in the first instance was applied to that part of the territory north of the Tuṅgabhadrā possessed by Śivājī at his death, on the return of Bāḷājī Viśvanāth was extended to the whole of the Marāṭhā claims exclusive the *sardeśmukhi.* Of these claims one-fourth or twenty-five per cent was appropriated to the head of the State in addition to the *sardeśmukhi.* This fourth was known by the name of the *Rājā's babti.* The balance was termed *mokāsā.* Of the *mokāsā* two shares were left at the disposal of the *Rājā;* the one was *sāhotrā* or six per cent and the other *nāḍgauḍā* or three per cent both calculated on the whole *svarājya.* The balance of *mokāsā* was sixty-six per cent of the whole of the Marāṭhā claims exclusive of the *sardeśmukhi.* The *sāhotrā* was bestowed by Śāhū on the *Pant Saciv* as an hereditary assignment; it was collected by the *Saciv's* own agents only within the territory wholly possessed by the Marāṭhās; separate collectors were sent by the *Rājā* to realise it in distant districts. The *nāḍgauḍā* was granted to different persons at the *Rājā's* pleasure. Independent of salaries from the treasury the *Pradhāns* had many *inām* villages conferred on them. Bāḷājī Viśvanāth received several districts near Poonā in personal *jāgīr,* including the fort of Lohagaḍ. The *Pratinidhi,* the *Peśavā,* and the *Pant Saciv* were charged with the collection of the *bābti* on the *Rājā's* account. Thus there

were distinct agents for realising the *bābti* and *sardeśmukhi*, for the *sāhotrā* of the *Pant Saciv*, for the *nāḍgauḍā* of the assignee to whom it belonged, and for the *mokasā* to different officers for maintaining troops. The *mokāsā* was distributed among a great number of chiefs as military *jāgīr* burdened according to the circumstances with dues to the head of the State, both of money and of troops. The districts of old Marāṭhā *jāgīrdārs* were free from the *cauth* but they were generally liable to the payment of *sardeśmukhi* besides furnishing their quota of horse. Such *jāgīrs*, in a grant of *mokāsā* for a large tract were always stated as deductions and long before districts were conquered, formal grants and assignments of their revenue were distributed. Numberless personal *jāgīrs* and *ināms* of lands of whole villages were alienated by *Śāhū*; the former commonly required the performance of some service but the latter were entirely freehold. The *Rājā's* authority was considered necessary to collect the revenue thus conceded, but the authority for which they were constantly petitioning was a formal affair. The revenue collectors thought that the *Rājā's sanad* was sufficient for levying tribute in districts not specified in the imperial deeds. A district once overrun was said to be under tribute from usage; other districts were plundered by virtue of letters patent.

Particular quarters of the country were assigned to the leading officers, which as far as they can now be ascertained, were as follows. The *Peśavā* and *Senāpati* charged with the command of a great proportion of the *Rājā's* personal troops, were ordered to direct their attention to the general protection and defence of the territory. The *Peśavā* had authority to levy the government dues in Khāndeś and part of the Balāghāṭ to the north-east of Solāpūr; the *senāpatī* was vested with similar authority in Bāglāṇ and a right to realise the dues established by usage from Gujarāt. Kānhojī Bhosle, the *Senā Sāheb Subhā* had charge of Berār Pāyinghāṭ and was privileged to conquer and exact tribute from Goṇḍvan to the east. The *Sarlaṣkar* had the charge of Gaṅgthaḍī including part of Auraṅgābād. Fatehsiṅgh Bhosle was appointed to the Karnāṭak; while the general charge of the old territory from the Nīrā to the Vārnā, and the collections from Hyderābād and Bidar were left to the *Pratinidhī* and the immediate agents of the *Rājā*. The *Citṇīs* had particular charge of several districts in the Koṅkaṇ. The *Pant Saciv* enjoyed the revenue of the whole *sāhotrā* besides his old possessions in *jāgīr*. The agents for collecting the *Rājā's zamindārī* dues were styled *nāib sardeśmukhs*. Kānhojī Āṅgre, retaining his districts in the Koṅkaṇ, levied his *cauth*, as he termed it, by continuing to plunder the ships of all nations that appeared on the coast without his permission and would not recognise his right of sovereignty over sea. He used to pay a tribute to the *Rājā* in guns, muskets, military stores, and ammunition. He also presented frequent *nazars* in articles from Europe and China; and he was sometimes charged with the very extraordinary duty of executing State criminals.

All the principal Marāṭhā officers as a further means of preserving intercourse and union had particular claims assigned to them on portions of revenue or on whole villages in the districts of each other. The greatest Marāṭhā commanders or their principal revenue agents were eager to own their native village; but although vested with the control, they were proud to acknowledge themselves of the family of the *pāṭil* or *kulkarṇi*; and if heirs to a *mirās* field, they would sooner have lost wealth and rank than been dispossessed of such a *vatan* or inheritance. Yet on obtaining the absolute sovereignty, they never assumed an authority in the interior village concerns beyond the rights and privileges acquired by birth or purchase, according to the invariable rules of the country. Such is a brief outline of the system and arrangements settled by the Marāṭhā ministry on the return of Bāḷājī Viśvanāth; and such was the mode by which a common interest was created, and for a time preserved among the Marāṭhā chiefs; while the character of Śāhū, the influence and power of Bāḷājī Viśvanāth and the ability of his sons Bājīrāv and Cimājī to give a lead to the Marāṭhā confederacy, paved the way, though by gradual steps, for the supremacy of the *Peśavās*.

In 1720, Nizām-ul-mulk, the governor of Māḷvā, throwing off his dependence on the Sayyads, determined to possess himself of the Deccan. He overran Khāndeś and defeated the Moghal troops under Dilāvar Alī Khān at Burhānpūr slaying their commander. The troops of Śāhū under Kānhojī Bhosle, the *Senā Sāheb Subhā*, and Haibatrāv Nimbāḷkar speedily joined Śaṅkarājī Malhār who since the departure of Husain Alī Khān had lived with the deputy viceroy Ālam Alī Khān. Khaṇḍerāv Dābhāḍe who had just returned from Delhī was likewise despatched from Sātārā with a body of horse. Ālam Alī Khān was defeated and killed at Bāḷāpūr in Berār Payinghāṭ by the troops of Nizām-ul-mulk, (10th August 1720). On this occasion the Marāṭhās behaved as faithful auxiliaries and fought with bravery. They lost no person of note except Śaṅkarājī Malhār who was mortally wounded and made prisoner. Soon after, events happened at Delhī by which the power of the Sayyads was destroyed, Muhammad Śāh was freed from their control and Nizām-ul-mulk confirmed as viceroy of the Deccan. Meanwhile several important changes had taken place at the Marāṭhā court, chiefly owing to the death of two leading ministers, Paraśurām Trimbak in 1718, and Bāḷājī Viśvanāth in April 1720. Śripatrāv the second son of the *Pratinidhī*, had succeeded his father Paraśurām Trimbak before the return of Bāḷājī Viśvanāth from Delhī. The *Peśavā's* health had suffered from the fatigue of the journey to Delhī and the labour he had bestowed on different arrangements after his return. He obtained leave from Śāhū to retire for a short time to Sāsvaḍ in Pooṇā where his family resided, but his constitution was exhausted and he survived for only a few days. At the time of his death (2nd April 1720), he left two sons, Bājīrāv and Cimājī. The robes of *Peśavāship*

Peśavā Bājīrāv.

were conferred upon Bājīrāv in Śāhū's camp at Masūr, 30 miles

east of Sātārā on 17th April 1720, exactly a fortnight after his father's death. The rise of Gāokvāḍs is almost contemporary, for the troops of Khaṇḍerāv Dābhāḍe behaved with so great bravery in the battle of Bāḷāpūr and one of his officers Damājī Gaikvāḍ, the ancestor of the Gāikvāḍs of Baroda, so particularly distinguished himself on that occasion, that on his return the young *Peśavā* Bājīrāv recommended him to Śāhū in the warmest manner. The *Rājā* in consequence appointed him second in command under Khaṇḍerāv with the title of *Samśer Bahādur*. Damājī died soon afterwards and was succeeded by his nephew Pilājī Gāikvāḍ. Cimājī, the second son of the late *Peśavā*, who received Supā in *jāgīr* was appointed to a similar command under his brother Bājīrāv. Ābājīpant Purandare, their father's chief manager, according to the rule of appointment, was reinvested by Śāhū with scrupulous ceremony. During the short interval between the death of Bāḷājī Viśvanāth and the appointment of Bājīrāv, Ābājīpant Purandare transacted ordinary affairs with the seal of the late *Peśavā*; but a great part of the business fell into the hands of Khaṇḍo Ballāḷ Citṇis and Śripātrāv Pratinidhī. Khaṇḍo Ballāḷ gave his attention principally to the Āṅgre, the Sidi, and the affairs of the Koṅkaṇ: while the *Pratinidhi* aided by Ānandrāv Sumant Pradhān conducted important negotiations with Nizām-ul-mulk. Ānandrāv's son Mahtājī was employed as Śāhū's agent with Nizām-ul-mulk, who while he apprehended an attack from Husain Ali Khān, conciliated Śāhū by promising to give up all that the royal grants conceded. No sooner was he apprised of the ascendancy acquired by his party at Delhī and of the loss the Marāṭhās had sustained in the death of Bāḷājī Viśvanāth than he began to start objections to the establishment of Śāhū's collectors, founded on some pretensions set up by Saṁbhājī and Candrasen Jādhav. The wise precautions of Bāḷājī Viśvanāth, and the communion of interest which the distribution of the ceded revenue had produced, placed the *Rājā* of the Marāṭhās in a far more commanding situation than that in which he had stood during the first period of Nizām-ul-mulk's government of the Deccan. The agent remained at Auraṅgābād where his arrangements would probably have been of little avail, but a vast army of Marāṭhās that was assembling in the Caṅgthaḍi under the *Sarlaṣkar* Sultānjī Niṁbāḷkar inflicted a crushing defeat upon the Moghals on 15th December 1720. In the Southern Marāṭhā country in Miraj *prānt* the Marāṭhās received stiff opposition from Mubāriz Khān. Śāhū therefore dispatched Śripatrāv Pratinidhī in September 1720 to establish Marāṭhā supremacy in that region. The campaign continued till the rainy season of the following year and is known as the Baṅkāpūr campaign. Severe battles were fought at Kundgoḷ and Bhilavaḍī and the Moghals suffered heavily. It was this show of force that ultimately hastened the delivery of orders on the part of Nizām-ul-mulk to allow *Rājā* Śāhū to establish his collectors. A fresh order or *farmān* obtained by the Marāṭhā agent at Delhi from

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Muhammad Śāh opportunely arrived to remove from Nizām-ul-mulk the appearance of having yielded to menace, and afforded an opportunity of evincing the promptitude with which he obeyed the imperial commands.

Pesavā Bājirāv.

Bājīrāv soon after his appointment as *Peśavā* set out with an army for Khāndeś where he levied his *mokāsā* although not without opposition. From the period of his accession he gave a considerable portion of his attention to extending Marāṭhā conquests to the north, and his aims were early turned to Mālva. Circumstances generally obliged him to return yearly to Satara and Poonā During the three expeditions, before the rains of 1724, though he had sent detachments into Māḷvā, it is not ascertained that he crossed the Narmadā in person until the middle of that year; nor did he remain in Māḷvā for any length of time until upwards of eleven years after his accession as *Peśavā*. Affairs in the Deccan required his presence, and with the intrigues of Nizam-ul-mulk and domestic opposition, restrained both his ambition and enterprise. At different times before the year 1724 Bajirav had defeated the *subhedār* of Burhānpūr and an officer named Daud Khan sent against him by Azim-ullā Khān from Maḷvā. In one of these battles two of Bajīrav's officers who afterwards rose to high rank first came into notice. One was Malhārjī Hoḷkar, a *śiledar* or self-horsed trooper, who commanded a party of his own horse. He was a Maraṭha *Dhangar*, a native of the village of Hoḷ on the Nīrā, of which his father was *caugula* or *paṭil*'s assistant. He had served under Kanṭhaji Kadam Bāṇḍe, one of the *Raja*'s officers and had gathered a small body of horse. The other officer was Rāṇoji Śinde descended from a younger branch of the family of Kanherkheḍ, a village fifteen miles east of Sātāra. The Śindes, according to local legends, have been distinguished horsemen since the time of the Bahamani dynasty. There are two Maraṭha families or rather clans named Śinde, the one distinguished by their hereditary *paṭil* village of Kanherkheḍ and the other by the title of Ravirāv. Both families claim Rajput descent. Those of Kanherkheḍ had a *mansab* under Auraṅgzeb and Śinde's daughter, who was given in marriage by that Emperor to Śāhū, died in captivity at Delhī. Śinde remained faithful to the Moghals, and as his fate was never known, it is conjectured that he was killed in some distant country possibly with Āzam Śah in the battle of Āgrā in 1707. The family had fallen into dacay and Rāṇojī who revived its fame was reduced to a state of abject poverty serving as a *bārgīr* or rider, first in the troop of Bāḷājī Viśvanāth and afterwards in that of Bāḷājī's son.

Another officer who gained fresh honour about this time was Udajī Pavar Viśvāsrāv. His father was first raised by Rāmcandrapant *Amatya* when he governed the country during the siege of Jiñji, and the young man joined Śāhū and obtained the command of a considerable body of horse. He was employed on various services and appears to have been an active partisan.

Like most contemporary Marāṭhā leaders of experience, such as Kanṭhājī Kadam Bāṇḍe, Pilājī Gāikvāḍ, and Kānhojī Bhosle, he calculated on the surest advantage in the most distant ventures where his appearance was least expected. He made incursions into Gujarāt and Māḷvā, plundered Gujarāt as far as Lunāvaḍā, and found Māḷvā so drained of troops that he was able to remain some time in the country intimating to the *Rājā* that if supported, he might collect the *cauth* and *sardeśmukhi* in every direction. How long he maintained his station in the country on his first inroads is uncertain, but it is probable that he was obliged to retire from Dhār, a fortress in the west of Māḷvā where he first established himself, upon the appointment of Girdhar Bahādur, whose exertion in the defence of Māḷvā posed a challenge to the Marāṭhās.

The progress of Udājī Pavār, the successes of Kanṭhājī Kadam Bāṇḍe and Pilājī Gāikvāḍ in Gujarāt, and the dissensions between Nizām-ul-mulk and the imperial court opportunely occurred to favour the *Peśavā's* views of spreading Marāṭhā conquests in North India. Bājīrāv who was early trained by his father to business was bred a soldier as well as a statesman. He united the enterprise, vigour and hardihood of a Marāṭhā chief with the polish, astuteness, and address of a clever diplomat. He was fully acquainted with his father's financial schemes and chose the part of the plan which was calculated to direct the Marāṭhā arms in a common effort. The genius of Bājīrāv enlarged his father's schemes. He had both the head to plan and the hand to do. To the unceasing industry and minute watchfulness, he added a judgment that taught him the leading points of importance which tended to spread Marāṭhā sway. Bājīrāv's views of spreading Marāṭha power in Upper India were at first disapproved by Śāhū, and from prudence as well as rivalry were opposed by Śripatrav, the *Pratinidhī*. Jealousy in public places is a passion which some persons can rarely hide. This rivalry between Bājīrāv, and Śripatrāv, probably tended to preserve the *Rajā's* ascendancy longer. The *Peśavā's* first proposal for exacting what he called the established tribute from Māḷvā and extending Marāṭhā conquests into North India was violently and for a time successfully opposed by the *Pratinidhī*. Śripatrāv represented it as rash and imprudent. He held that, though the head of the State might not be called to account for casual inroads, to allow the *Peśavā* to make raids must draw on the Marāṭhās the whole power of the empire, and precipitate hostilities with Nizām-ul-mulk whose victorious army was still at their gates; that far from being prepared for resistance there was a total want of regularity even in their arrangements; that they could scarcely quell a common insurrection; and that to enter on a war before they had secured what had been ceded was the extreme of folly and of rashness. The *Pratinidhī* added that he was a soldier as well as the *Peśavā*, and when expedient as ready as Bājīrāv to head an expedition; that after they had established their collectors and arranged other parts of the country it would be advisable, before pursuing their conquests

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in the north, to reduce the Karnāṭak and to recover the countries conquered by Śivājī; that Fatehsiṅgh Bhosle's troops could scarcely venture to cross the Kṛṣṇā, and that the first efforts should be made in that quarter.

These were probably the real opinions of Śripatrāv. The wisdom of Bājīrāv was of a higher order. He comprehended the nature of predatory power; he perceived its growth in the turbulence and anarchy for which the system of distributing the revenue was the first remedy; he foresaw that confusion abroad would tend to order at home; that as commander of distant expeditions he should acquire the direction of a larger force than any other chief of the empire; that the resources of the Deccan would not only improve by withdrawing the hordes of horse which unprofitably consumed them, but must fall under the control of that person who could most readily procure employment and subsistence for the troops, while Bājīrāv concealed his private designs and partly admitted the justice of Śripatrāv's views, he endeavoured by his commanding eloquence to arouse enthusiasm or ambition in Śāhū. He went over the conquests of Śāhū's famous grandfather and reminded him of the powerful kings and the mighty emperor with whom Śivājī had successfully contended. He painted the present condition of India, the weakness, indolence and imbecility of the Moghals, and the activity, energy and enterprise of the Marāṭhās. If, he said, the great Śivājī had been of the same opinion as the *Pratinidhī*, he would have thought it necessary, before venturing into the Karnāṭak, to reduce Bijāpūr and Golcoṇḍā. As to their domestic quarrels beyond the Kṛṣṇā, it would be time to think of them hereafter: by the *Rājā's* good fortune every desire would be accomplished. Bājīrāv ended a speech of considerable length, with the words: Now is our time to drive strangers from the land of the Hindus and to gain undying renown. By turning our efforts to North India the Marāṭhā flag shall fly from the Kṛṣṇā to the Aṭak. You shall plant it, replied Śāhū, in the Kinnar Khaṇḍ beyond the Himālayas, a noble son of a worthy father. Let us strike, said Bājīrāv, at the trunk of the withering tree; the branches must fall of themselves.

At what time Śāhū's consent was obtained is not known. The form of obtaining the *Rajā's* consent on all such occasions was rigidly observed by the *Peśavās* at a stage when their supremacy was far advanced. By virtue of that authority and their station as *mukhya pradhāns* or chief ministers, even when their usurpation became complete, it befitted their constitutional status to act as nominal servants and real masters to rule the Marāṭhā chiefs as the delegates of their prince.

During the early years of his *Peśavāship,* Bājīrāv had to tread the ground very carefully; for Bājīrāv knew that Nizām-ul-mulk was not the man who would easily forget that the Marāṭhās had helped Ālam Ali at Bāḷāpūr. He had also to

encounter Mubāriz Khān who had been specially commissioned by the previous emperors to punish the Marāṭhās for their encroachments and who therefore bore a bitter enmity towards them. Bājīrāv had to make a choice and to decide whom to placate and whom to antagonise. A personal diplomatic meeting with Nizām-ul-mulk on 4th January 1721 at Cikalṭhāṇā east of Calisgāṅv yielded no fruitful results. At this hour Nizām-ul-mulk was called to Delhī by the Emperor for accepting *Wazīrship*. After some hesitation he decided to go to Delhī (21st October 1721). He, however, soon realised that he could not hold his position in the flippant atmosphere of Delhi politics and decided to choose the earliest opportunity to return to the Deccan with a view to hold almost an independent position of power there, although he would not mind nominally acknowledging the suzerainty of the Emperor. Accordingly, on 27th December 1723 he marched straight to the south, informing the Emperor that he felt it his imperative duty to drive the Marāṭhās from Māḷvā and Gujarāt. By long and rapid marches he reached Ujjain. The enraged Emperor decided to punish the rebel Nizām-ul-mulk and called upon Mubāriz Khān and *Rājā* Śāhū to do their best to put him down with all the force at their command. This proved a welcome opportunity for Bājīrāv, who proceeded to the north, crossed Narmadā on 8th May and arrived in close proximity to the Nizām's camp at Sihore. Mubāriz Khān was for some time undecided as to what course he should take, whether to obey the imperial orders and fight the Nizām or to befriend him. The Nizām however took his own decision to placate the Marāṭhās and fight with Mubāriz Khān. At this hour Mubāriz Khān also had opened negotiations with the Marāṭhās when he discovered that he had to face Nizām-ul-mulk. This gave an opportunity to the Marāṭhās to raise their demands and gain supremacy not only in the Deccan but also in Māḷvā and Gujarāt. There was a formal meeting between Nizām-ul-mulk and Bājīrāv at Nālchhā near Dhār on 18th May 1724 where usual diplomatic formalities were undergone but ultimately each one was left guessing as to what course the other would follow. The Nizām now lost no time in proceeding to the south and met his rival Mubāriz Khān in the battle of Sākharkheḍā on 1st October 1724 where he gained a decisive victory. Mubāriz Khān was killed. The emperor now made a virtue out of necessity and confirmed Nizām-ul-mulk as the *subhedār* of the Deccan. The battle of Sākharkheḍā is a turning point in the history of the Later Moghals as it marks the gradual disintegration of the Moghal Empire; for, the Nizām henceforth no longer cared to receive orders from Delhī and followed his own policy in maintaining his own position.

In 1725, Hamid Khān, officiating governor of Gujarāt and the uncle of Nizām-ul-mulk, granted the *cauth* in Gujarāt to Kanṭhājī Kadam Bāṇḍe and Pilājī Gāikvāḍ for the aid they gave him against Mubāriz Khān, at one time governor of Gujarat. They proceeded to levy their assignments. The division of the money led to perpetual disputes Pilājī, as the agent of Dabhāḍe

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Senāpati, considered himself the superior authority in Gujarāt and Kaṇṭhājī as an officer of the *Rājā* despised his pretensions. An agreement was signed by which the *cauth* east of the Mahi was assigned to Pilājī and that to the west to Kaṇṭhājī. Meanwhile Bājīrāv took advantage of the confusion caused by Moghal dissensions to carry his arms into Māḷvā, where, though opposed by *Rājā* Girdhar, he was successful for two seasons in obtaining plunder and contributions. Nizām-ul-mulk against whom the imperial forces were acting in Gujarāt, seems to have connived at his incursions. Bajīrāv, by virtue of the authority vested in him by Śāhū granted deeds to Pavār, Hoḷkar, and Śinde to levy *cauth* and *sardeśmukhi* and to keep half the *mokāsā* in payment of their troops. In 1726, the *Peśavā* with a large army under Fatehsiṅgh Bhosle, marched into the Madrās Karnāṭak, plundered the districts, and levied a contribution from Śriraṅgapaṭṭam. But Bājīrāv was dissatisfied with the result, and on returning to Sātārā he found more serious reasons of dissatisfaction in the measures pursued by the *Pratinidhi*. The cause of his displeasure originated in the artful schemes of Nizām-ul-mulk, which, but for the penetration and vigour of Bājīrāv, would probably have unlinked the chain by which Baḷājī Viśvanāth had joined the interests as well as the inclinations of most of the Hindu chieftains of the Deccan.

In 1727, Nizām-ul-mulk, though relieved from immediate apprehensions from the Emperor Muhammad Śāh, whose power was daily declining, became alarmed at the spreading power of the Marāṭhās. He beheld in their systematic and persevering encroachments on the divided revenue of the Deccan and the Karnāṭak, the extinction of his own resources as well as those of the empire, and took measures to avert these evils by endeavouring to consolidate his own power and to create divisions among the Marāṭhās. In these measures he overlooked the ability of his opponent Bājīrāv and little thought that the pursuit of his own schemes should strengthen the power of the *Peśavā*. Nizām-ul-mulk, encouraged by appearances and the support and alliance of Candresen Jādhav, Rāv Raṁbhā Niṁbāḷkar *jāgirdār* of *Bārśi*, and Saṁbhājī Rajā of Kolhāpūr, resolved to complete the design he had formed. With this view he espoused the cause of Saṁbhāji and endeavoured to create a complete division in the Marāṭhā government by reviving the former feuds between Śāhū and Saṁbhāji.

Nizām-ul-mulk began by formally hearing the claims of Saṁbhājī in a demand made for an equal division of the revenue; and according to a prevalent custom in the Deccan, sequestrated the property in dispute by removing the collectors of the *sardeśmukhi* and displacing the *mokāsādārs* of Śāhū until their respective rights should be adjusted. Assuming this privilege as viceroy he pretended to become the friend and arbiter of both parties. Bājirāv was not to be duped by the old artifice of engaging the Marāṭhā cousins in an hereditary dispute. He quickly turned the Nizām's weapons to his own advantage; for

Śāhū, true to the feeling of a Marāṭhā, of whom even among the peasantry the mildest man becomes voilent when a *vatan* is concerned, though for some time he had been reconciled to Nizām-ul-mulk, was at once on hearing of this interference roused to implacable resentment against him, and, 'for the time being, against all who had vindicated or who dared to justify his conduct. He looked to Bājīrāv for counsel and for vengeance; for these he would have bartered life, and for these he virtually sold the supremacy of his empire. At first he determined to lead his army, but it was represented that to march in person would place him on an equality with Saṁbhājī of Kolhāpūr; none but the emperor was worthy of contending with him. Full powers were therefore given to Bājirāv. The great influence which the *Peśavā* had gained was shown in the promptness with which many of the most unruly and factious of the *śiledār* families gathered round the standard of the nation.

Nizām-ul-mulk perceived his mistake, and sought to amend it by writing to Śāhū and the *Pratinidhī* that he was solely actuated by a wish to benefit the *Rājā* in order to prevent the usurpation of the Koṅkaṇī Brāhmaṇs by whose creatures every situation was filled; that the *mokāsādars* and collectors of the *sardeś-mukh* had been replaced by others belonging to the *Rājā's* relation, Saṁbhājī, whom he had appointed the *Rājā's* deputy, as *sardeśmukh* of the six *subhās* of the Deccan; and that the *Rājā* when freed from the control of the Koṅkaṇī Brahmaṇs might afterwards appoint agents entirely of his own selection. But Śāhū was too shrewd to be misled by such specious pleas and far from falling a victim to the cunning plans of creating a rift between him and Bajīrav in this manner, they resolved to teach the Nizam a lesson. Both parties prepared to attack each other as soon as the rains should subside and enable their horse to cross the rivers. In the war that ensued, Bājīrāv ravaged Jālnā and Māhūr, made a lightning dash into Gujarāt and Khāndeś and finally inflicted a severe defeat upon the Nizām at Pālkheḍ near Auraṅgābād in February 1728, forcing him to agree to negotiations. Bājīrāv demanded that Saṁbhājī should be sent to his camp; that security should be afforded for the future collection of the Marāṭhā shares of the revenue by giving up several fortified places; and that all arrears not yet realised should be made good. Nizām-ul-mulk agreed to all the articles except that of delivering up Saṁbhājī. Bājīrāv pointed out that he was a near relation of the *Rājā's* and that he would be treated with equal respect. It was at last settled that Nizām-ul-mulk should guarantee his safe arrival in Panhāḷā, when Śāhū should be at liberty to take what steps he might think proper for the settlement of their family disputes. The battle of Pālkheḍ is thus an important landmark in the history of the Marāṭhas, as it once for all settled the dispute between Bājīrāv and the *Pratinidhi*, prevented the Nizām from making pretensions to playing the role of a middleman between the rival parties at the Marāṭhā Court and finally led the Marāṭhā nobility to look to Bājīrāv as the maker of Marāṭhā destiny.

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Bājirāv was negotiating with Sar Buland Khān who was then the *subhedār* of Gujarāt, in the hope of obtaining the cession of the *cauth* and *sardeśmukhī* of that province. After the ratification of the treaty with Nizām-ul-mulk, Cimāji Appā, the *Peśavā's* brother marched with a large army and exacted a heavy contribution from Petlād and plundered Dholkā, but on the promise that if the *cauth* and *sardeśmukhī* were yielded the districts should be secured from depredation. Sar Buland Khān agreed to the *Peśavā's* proposals, and in 1729 granted the *sardeśmukhī* or ten per cent of the whole revenue both on the land and customs except the port of Surat and the district round it, together with the *cauth* or one-fourth of the whole collections on the land and customs except Surat, and five per cent on the revenues of the city of Ahmadābād.

In 1729, Muhammad Khān Baṅgaś, then governor of Allāhābād having entered Bundelkhaṇd and established himself in the territory of *Rājā* Chatrasāl, the Rajput Prince solicited aid from Bājirāv which was readily granted. Baṅgaś was reduced to the greatest distress and the province was evacuated by his troops. Chatrasāl in return for this service conferred on Bājirāv, a fort and district in the neighbourhood yielding Rs. 2 lakhs of yearly revenue. The governor of Māḷvā Girdhar Bahādur had been killed in the battle of Amjherā against the Marāṭhās (Nov. 1728). Jaysiṅgh succeeded him. Towards the end of 1730 he was transferred. Muhammad Baṅgaś succeeded him as governor. But he could make little headway against the Marāṭhās, who were now fairly established in Māḷvā. Baṅgaś was recalled in September 1732, and succeeded by Savāī Jaysiṅgh. Nothing could be more favourable to the views of Bājirav. As Jaysiṅgh was situated, the honour of the Rajput was in conflict with the subsisting arrangement between him and the Marāṭhās. This may account for his hesitating to comply with their demands; but he at last came to an agreement with Bājirāv and yielded him the government of Māḷvā.

Kaṇhoji Bhosle, the *Senā Sāheb* **Subhā** had been accused of disobedience (1728) and confined at Sātārā (1731) and Raghujī the son of Kānhojī's cousin Bimbājī had been appointed *Senā Saheb Subhā* in his stead (1729). Raghujī had accompanied Śāhū in his excursions and by his boldness and skill had ingratiated himself with Śāhū and obtained a great ascendancy over him. Śāhū married him to the sister of one of his own wives of the Śirke family. On receiving the *sanads* for Berār, Raghuji gave a bond to maintain a body of 5,000 horse for the service of the State to pay yearly a sum of Rs. 9 lakhs and exclusive of *ghāsdāṇā* or forage money, a tribute which since the time of Rājārām, the *Senā Sāheb Subhā* had been allowed to reserve, and also to pay to the head of the government half of all other tribute, prize, property and contributions. He also bound himself to raise 10,000 horse when required and to accompany the *Peśavā* or to proceed to any quarter where he might be ordered. This arrangement was effected during the absence of Śripatrāv

Pratinidhī who had been sent into the Końkaṇ by the *Rājā*. The *Pratinidhī* being a friend of Kānhojī Bhosle endeavoured to obtain some mitigation of his sentence, but failed. Kānhoji who was an officer of great enterprise, died at Sātārā in 1736-1737, after having lived there for about six years as a prisoner.

While Bājirāv's presence was necessary in the north to support Cimājī in Gujarāt, Saṁbhajī Rājā of Kolhāpūr, instigated by Udājī Cavhāṇ refused to listen to overtures made by Śāhū and encamped on the north side of the Vārṇā with all his baggage, women and equipments, and began to plunder the country. The *Pratinidhī* surprised Saṁbhājī's camp and drove him to Panhāḷā with the loss of the whole of his baggage (March 1730). Śāhū himself had marched up to Bhilavaḍī in this campaign. Many prisoners were taken, among others Tārābāī and her daughter-in-law the widow of Śivājī of Kolhāpūr. Both these persons were allowed to reside in the fort of Sātārā (1730). This defeat brought on an immediate accommodation between the two brothers. Although Śāhū was victorious he arranged a ceremonious meeting with his brother and conciliated him (27th February 1731). The meeting was arranged at Jākhinvāḍī near Karhāḍ. Fatehsingh Bhosle, Śripatrāv Pratinidhī, Nāro Rām Mantrī, Bāḷājī Bājirāv, Bhavānīśaṅkar Moreśvar, Ābājīpant Purandare, Kṛṣṇājī Dābhāḍe, Niṁbāḷkar and Pāṇḍhare were sent to Panhāḷa to escort Saṁbhāji. They met Saṁbhājī at Panhāḷā on 16th December 1730. Saṁbhājī accompanied by the above dignitaries reached Jākhinvāḍī halting at Navlī, Vadgāṅv or the bank of the river Vārṇā, Islāmpūr and Vāṭhār. Śāhū also had moved to Karhāḍ from Sātārā. The brothers first met at Jakhinvāḍī and then at Karhāḍ. Later both of them went to Sātārā where Saṁbhāji stayed for two months. On 13th April 1731, the treaty of Varṇa was signed between the two cousins.

Following were the important terms of the treaty of Vārṇā. The Varuṇa Mahāl was to be transferred to Saṁbhajī. The territory to the south of the river Vārṇā and stretching right up to the bank of the Tuṅgabhadrā was to be assigned to Saṁbhājī's independent sovereignty in all essentials. He was however subordinate to Śāhū as far as his foreign relations were concerned. It was also stipulated that the southern districts beyond the Tuṅgabhadrā right up to Rāmeśvar should be supposed common for joint endeavour. Koppal was to be assigned to Saṁbhājī in exchange for Ratnāgirī. Saṁbhājī was to transfer Miraj, Aṭhni, Tāsgāṅv and other places in Bijāpūr to Śāhū.

Many of the terms of the treaty were not observed. Saṁbhāji never participated in the Marāṭhā campaigns beyond Tuṅgabhadrā and hence he was not a party to the conquest of the territory between the Vārṇā and the Tuṅgabhadrā and that beyond Tuṅgabhadra. Saṁbhajī did not transfer the parts of Miraj, Athni in possession of Udājī to Śāhū which were later captured by Śāhū during his Miraj campaign.

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Although enemies were not wanting to detract from the reputation of the *Peśavā* and to extol that of his rivals, the success of the *Pratinidhi* did not materially affect the ascendancy which Bājīrāv had attained. Nizām-ul-mulk, however, was still bent on opposing him. In 1729 he had persuaded the *Pratinidhī* and Śāhū to grant exemption of *cauth* for the province of Hyderabād. He now found a fit instrument for his purpose in Trimbakrāv Dābhaḍe. Even since the *Peśavā* had obtained the deeds of Gujarāt from Sar Buland Khān, Dābhāḍe had been negotiating with other Marāṭhā chiefs and assembling troops in Gujarāt. At length finding himself at the head of 35,000 men he had resolved to march for the Deccan in the next season.

Bājīrāv was well aware of the *Senapati's* enmity, but was not alarmed by his preparations until he discovered that Nizām-ul-mulk was to support him in the Deccan. On learning their intention he at once determined to anticipate them, though, when joined by all his adherents, his whole army did not amount to more than half of that of Dābhāḍe. Dābhāḍe gave out that he was proceeding to protect the *Raja's* authority, and was supported by Pilājī Gaikvaḍ, Kanṭhājī and Raghujī Kadam Bande, Udājī and Ānandrav Pavār, Cimājī Dāmodar and Kuvar Bahadur with many others. Bājīrāv proved that Dābhāḍe *Senāpati* was in alliance with Nizām-ul-mulk and declared that he was leagued for the purpose of dividing the Marāṭhā sovereignty with the *Rāja* of Kolhāpūr.

The preparations of Nizām-ul-mulk hastened the march of Bājirav, and as his army, though so inferior in number, was composed of the old *pāga* horse or the *Rājā's* house-hold troops and some of the best Marāṭhā *mankaris*, he moved rapidly towards Gujarat (10th October 1730). At the same time he began negotiating from the day he left Poona and continued until the hour of attac'. In the battle which took place (1st April 1731) between Baroda and Dabhoi in Gujarāt, the death of Trimbakrav Dābhaḍe, the *Senapati*, and many who commanded under him left complete victory to Bājirav with the almost unquestioned leadership of the Marāṭhā Confederacy. A treaty was concluded and the *Peśava* returned to Satarā on 14th May 1731. He would have punished Nizām-ul-mulk's treachery, but the Nizam warded off the blow which he could with difficulty have withstood, by directing its aim against the head of the empire. Bājīrāv, readily agreed to the Nizām's views. It suited his favourite policy, and it gave employment to persons likely to disturb the domestic arrangements he aime l at establishing. Troops were immediately sent towards Māḷvā under his brother Cimāji wi 's he himself remained for a time engaged in the interior arrangements of the government at Pooṇa and Sātārā.

The victory over Dābhāḍe, like the issue of every civil war, left impressions on the minds of many not easily effaced. The *Peśavā* adopted every means of conciliation in his power.

Peśavā Bājirāv.

Yeśvantrāv, the son of Trimbakrāv Dābhāḍe, was raised to the rank of *Senāpati*, but being too young to take the management on himself, his mother Umābāī became his guardian and Pilāji Gāikvāḍ their former *Mutālik* or deputy was confirmed in that situation with the title of *Senā Khās Khel* or Captain of the Sovereign Tribe in addition to his hereditary title of Samsher Bahādur. An agreement was drawn up under the authority of Śāhū and subscribed by the *Peśavā* and *Senāpati*, that neither party should enter the boundary of the other in Gujarāt and Māḷvā. Within the limits of Gujarāt the *Senāpatī* was to have entire management, but he bound himself to pay one-half of the revenue to government through the *Peśavā*. All contributions levied from countries not specified in the deeds given under the authority of Sar Buland Khān were to be made over to the *Rājā* after deducting expenses.

Perceiving Bājīrāv's complete ascendancy, the appointment of the Hindu prince Abhaysiṅgh to supersede Sar Buland Khān, the imbecility of the emperor, and the treachery as well as venality of his courtiers, and knowing also that he had rendered himself in the highest degree obnoxious, Nizām-ul-mulk had good grounds for apprehending that the *Peśavā* might be able to obtain the viceroyalty of the Deccan. The plan which under these circumstances he adopted seems to have been framed for the purpose of diverting the Marāṭhās from destroying the resources of his own country and of making his own power a balance between that of the emperor and the *Peśavā*.

Kānhojī Bhosle's disobedience and his consequent confinement at Satārā, as well as *Pratinidhi's* sympathy for him have already been referred to above. Whether Nizam-ul-mulk had made any preparations to take advantage of that situation is uncertain; but Cimāji Appā reasonably felt that Nizam meditated an attack. He therefore pitched his camp about forty miles east of Satārā, leaving Pilāji Jadhāv with an inconsiderable body of horse. In Koṅkaṇ Sāvant, the principal *deśmukh* of Vāḍī, occupied his hereditary territory in that quarter but having suffered from Kānhoji Āṅgre's attacks before the last peace (1730) between the *Rājās* of Sātārā and Kolhāpūr he always bore an enmity to Āṅgre's family. Kānhojī Āṅgre's death happened in July 1729. All attempts to reduce his power before that time on the part of the English, the Portuguese, and the Dutch had failed. In the quarrels between his sons which followed Kānhoji's death, Bājīrāv helped Mānājī and obtained from him the cession of Kotaligaḍ in Ṭhāṇā and Rājmācī in Pooṇā. The Sidi, besides defending, against the Marāṭhās, the districts which had been placed under his charge by Auraṅgzeb, including Mahāḍ, Rāygaḍ, Dābhoḷ and Añjanvel, frequently levied contributions from Śāhū's districts. As force was not likely to prevail, the *Pratinidhī*, Jivājī Khaṇḍerāv Ciṭṇis, and others of the *Rājā's* ministers formed schemes for ruining the Sidi by intrigue. For this purpose the *Pratinidhī* gained one Yākub Khān, a daring chief, who possessed the confidence of the Sidi. To aid this

scheme, a force was sent into the Koṅkaṇ in 1733 under the *Pratinidhī*, his chief agent Yamājī Śivdev, and Udājī Cavhāṇ. The intrigues were unsuccessful, and war ensued in which the *Pratinidhī* was worsted and the fort of Govaḷkoṭ in Ratnāgirī though strongly garrisoned was disgracefully surprised and taken. Cimājī Appā incurred the *Rājā's* displeasure for not sending assistance to Śripatrāv after repeated orders. Pilājī Jadhāv was at length despatched, but as none of the other officers at Sātārā would undertake to support the *Pratinidhī* except on condition of receiving the conquered districts in *jāgīr*, he was compelled to return to Satārā with great loss of reputation. About this time the Sidi died (February 1733) and a quarrel ensued between his sons. Yākub Khān immediately embraced the cause of Sidi Rehmān, one of the sons, and called on Śāhū for support but nothing could be done until the return of Bājīrāv, who, after leaving Hoḷkar and Sinde in Maḷva, returned to the Deccan, and on crossing the Godāvarī intimated to the *Rājā* that he should march straight to Daṇḍā-Rājpurī. All the disposable infantry was directed to join the *Peśavā* and Pilājī Jādhav was sent off, reinforced with a body of horse, to support Malhārrāv Hoḷkar in Māḷvā. Sidi Rehmān and Yākub Khān joined Bājīrāv who began operations by attacking some of the forts. Fatehsiṅgh Bhosle and the *Pratinidhī* proceeded to co operate, but the only help they gave was to recover Śivājī's capital Rāygaḍ, the commandant of which had been previously corrupted by Yākub Khān. The *Peśava* reduced the forts of Taḷā and Ghosāḷā (May-August 1733) and besieged Jañjirā but was obliged to listen to overtures made by the besieged, who ceded to the Marāṭhās the forts of Rāygaḍ, Taḷā, Ghosāḷā, Aveitgaḍ and Birvaḍī. After this successful close of hostilities, Bājirā , with additional power and influence. returned to Sātārā and was appointed *subhedār* of the late acquisitions. Hoḷkar completely overran Maḷvā and the country south of the Caṁbaḷ and took possession of several places. Afterwards, on the persuasion of Kaṇṭhājī Kadam Bāṇḍe, he made an incursion into Gujarāt, and they both levied contributions as far as the Banas and plundered several towns to the north of Ahmadābād including Idar and Pālanpūr.

In the north, Bājīrāv levied the *cauth* and *sardeśmukhī* in Māḷvā and applied through Raja Jaysiṅgh for their formal cession in that province, and likewise for a confirmation of the deeds granted by Sar Buland Khān for Gujarāt. The Turāṇī Moghals who formed a considerable party in the ministry were decidedly against so disgraceful a compromise. With the object of achieving his purpose Bājīrāv started on a campaign towards the north (October 4, 1735). First, he wanted to estimate the attitude of the Rajputs and therefore proceeded through Māḷvā and reached Udaipūr in February, 1736. The *Rāṇā* received him very warmly and agreed to pay a lakh and a half annually as *cauth*. During his tour through Rājputānā, presents and tributes poured upon Bājīrāv from all quarters. Khān Daurān, the Mīr Bakśi of the Moghals, who was usually guided by Jaysiṅgh sent five to ten thousand rupees every day. On the 4th of March 1736.

Bājīrāv met Jaysiṅgh who offered to pay five lakhs *cauth* annually for Jaipur and promised to obtain from the emperor written grants for the provinces of Māḷvā and Gujarāt. Efforts were now made to arrange for Bājīrāv's personal meeting with the emperor who however not caring to meet Bājīrāv in person at Delhī sent his own agent Yādgār Khān to Jaysiṅgh with certain proposals tending to effect as advantageous a bargain as possible. Bājīrāv at once rejected the offer and communicated his counter proposals through his own agent Dhoṇḍo Govind. The emperor was displeased at this and declined to reply. Bājīrāv knew that the emperor could not be persuaded otherwise than by a trial of strength and he decided to take up the challenge. However, as the season was far advanced he retired to the Deccan (May 1736) only to come back again early in January 1737 with all the contingents of Marāṭhā *sardārs* gathering round his standard. As the advance party under Malhārrāv Hoḷkar crossed the Jamunā and got into the *Doāb* evidently for forage and plunder, they were suddenly attacked by the party of *Vazir* Sādat Khān and driven away (March 12, 1737). In the scuffle that ensued a number of Marāṭhā soldiers were killed and those that were overtaken by the Moghals were slaughtered. The *Vazir* became so elated with this success that he wrote boastful letters to the emperor informing him as to how the Marāṭhās had been signally defeated and driven away. When Bājirāv heard of this he resolved to teach the emperor a wholesome lesson by himself falling upon Delhi and burning its outlying parts. In two long marches he reached Delhi on 28th March 1737, but on a second thought desisted from any destructive operations. The presence of Bājirāv at the gates of Delhī was enough to strike terror in the palace and there was a great commotion in the city. Thereupon Bājirāv withdrew a little distance to Jhil Lake to allay the scare that had been created. A force of 8,000 soldiers despatched by the emperor against him was completely defeated. Bājīrāv set out on his return to Satārā, where he paid his respects to the *Rājā* and immediately proceeded into the Koṅkaṇ to repulse an attack of the Portuguese on Mānāji Āṅgre (1737). The *Peśavā* succeeded and took Mānāji under his protection on condition of his paying a yearly sum of Rs. 7,000 and presenting annually to the *Rājā*, foreign articles from Europe or China to the value of Rs. 3,000 or more. The war with the Portuguese led to the invasion of Salsette, and Bajirāv, to secure his conquests in Ṭhāṇā and maintain the war against the Portuguese, entertained some Arabs and a very large body of infantry principally *Mavḷes* and *Hetkaris*. News from Delhi obliged him to withdraw part of his forces from the Koṅkaṇ.

In the meanwhile the emperor sent earnest appeals to Nizām to come to Delhi for saving the situation. He was granted all his demands to persuade him to take up the task of warding off the Marāṭhā danger from the north. The Nizām now went back upon his promise that he had given to Bājīrāv and proceeded to the north on April 7, 1737. In fact Bājīrāv had a shrewd suspicion of this development as the two met each other when

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Bājirāv was going to the south and the Nizām to the north apparently on a specious plea of offering his submission to the emperor. Bājirāv therefore lost no time to proceed to the north again as soon as the rainy season was over. He assembled all the troops he could collect and by the time he reached the Narmadā, November 30, 1737, found himself at the head of 80,000 men. Proceeding further Bājirāv, with his skilful manoeuvering operations, was successful in confining Nizām-ul-mulk in the fortress of Bhopāḷ in December 1737 and preventing him from gathering supplies from outside. Finding himself in a tight corner Nizām-ul-mulk at last sued for peace and on the 7th January 1738 signed a convention at Dorahā Sarai, 64 miles north of Siroñj, promising in his own handwriting to grant to Bājirāv the whole of Māḷvā and the complete sovereignty of the territory between the Narmadā and the Cambaḷ. To obtain a confirmation of this agreement from the emperor, and to use every endeavour to procure the payment of a subsidy of Rs. 50 lakhs to defray his expenses, the *Peśavā* remained for a time levying contributions south of the Cambaḷ and carrying on negotiations at court where the threatened invasion of Nādir Śāh was creating alarm (January 1739). At the same time the war with the Portuguese was being vigorously carried on by the *Peśavā's* brother Cimāji and several forts in Ṭhāṇā were taken by the Marāṭhas (March 1737). Raghuji Bhosle had in the meanwhile defeated and killed the *subhedar* Śujayat Khān of Berār and returned loaded with booty (December 1737). News now arrived of the arrival of Nadir Śah, the defeat of the Moghals (February 13, 1739), the death of Khān Dauran, the capture of Sadat Khan, and finally that the victorious Persian was dictating the term of ransom. The subsequent intelligence which Bājirāv received at Nasirabad in Khandeś informing him of the imprisonment of the emperor, the plunder of Delhi, and the dreadful massacre of many of its inhabitants (March 7, 1739) seemed for a time to overwhelm him. "Our quarrel with Raghujī Bhosle is insignificant," said the *Peśavā*; "the war with the Portuguese is as naught; there is but one enemy in Hindustan". He appears to have conceived that Nadir Śāh would establish himself as emperor, but he was not dismayed when he heard reports that a hundred thousand Persians were advancing to the south. "Hindus and Musalmans," said Bājirav, "the whole power of the Deccan must assemble, and I shall spread our Marāṭhās from the Narmadā to the Cambaḷ". He called on Nāsir Juṅg, the Nizām's second son, to arm against the common foe, and Cimāji Appā was ordered to desist from the Konkan warfare and join him with all speed. Cimāji was now in possession of the whole of Salsette and had begun the siege of Bassein. Notwithstanding offers of submission, Cimājī prosecuted the siege and on the 5th of May 1739 Bassein fell. Holkar and Śinde, as soon as Bassein fell, were sent to join Bājirāv with all speed, but by that time news arrived of the retreat of Nādir Śāh. Nādir Śāh restored the throne to its degraded owner and wrote letters to all the princes of India announcing the event. Among others,

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he addressed a letter to Śāhū and one to Bājīrāv. (April 25, 1739). He informed Bājīrāv that he had reinstated Muhammad Śāh and now considered him as a brother; that although Bājīrāv was an ancient servant possessing a large army, he had not afforded the emperor assistance; but that all must now attend to Muhammad Śāh's commands; for if they did not he would return with his army and inflict punishment upon the disobedient.

Shortly after the departure of Nādir Śāh, (May 1, 1739) Bājīrāv sent a letter to the emperor expressive of his submission and obedience, and a *nazar* of 101 gold *mohars*. This was acknowledged in suitable terms and a splendid *khillat* was sent in return. He was assured by the emperor that the rank, possessions, and inheritance already conferred on him would be confirmed, and that he might depend on finding his interests best promoted by continuing steadfast in his duty to the imperial government.

After the death of Auraṅgzeb in 1707, even though the Moghals withdrew from the *Svarāj* territory, many Moghal officers held numerous forts with the active support of the Nizām. With the firm establishment of Śāhū's power, the Marāṭhas undertook the liquidation of these forts. This task was executed during 1730—35 when Mahuli, Cākaṇ, Karnālā, and Pālī fell to the Marāṭhās. Miraj was captured in 1739 after the successful campaign of Śāhū.

Similarly on the western coast, the Sidi of Jañjirā held ⅔rd of the present Kolaba district. During the period stated above, Rāygaḍ was captured and Sidi was defeated. All his possessions except the tiny island of Jañjirā were incorporated into the *Svarāj* territory.

When these events of tremendous importance were taking place on the political map of India, Śāhū decided to open up a campaign in the Southern Marāṭhā country with the twin object of eliminating the menace of Udāji Cavhāṇ and the capture of Miraj, a stronghold of the Moghals since the time of Auraṅgzeb. The campaign dragged on for two years. Udāji Cavhāṇ was defeated and his stronghold, Athni was captured by the *Pratinidhi* on 8th November 1739. Yamājīpant subjugated Bhopālgaḍ, commanded by Udāji Cavhāṇ and brought back the Gāikvāḍ brothers as prisoners to Śāhū. On October 3, 1739, Miraj capitulated. The fort was visited by Śāhū and handed over for management to Bāḷājī bin Śivājī Sāḷuṅke. Śāhū, at the start of the campaign, encamped at Umbraj for two years and then proceeded on the Miraj campaign. The actual campaign took about four to six months and the capture of the Miraj fort was delayed due to its strength and the stiff opposition the Marāthā forces under Santājī Ḍubal and Āpājīrāv (son of Bahiropant Piṅgle) encountered. Bāḷājī Bājīrāv accompanied Śāhū in this campaign. During this campaign Śāhū was well

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aware of the political situation in India and sent commands to his officers regarding the tactics to be followed by them. Śāhū returned from the campaign to Sātārā in February 1740.

To return to the Marāṭhā-Nizām struggle—although no new *subhedār* nor any deputy of Nizām-ul-mulk was appointed to Māḷvā, no *sanad* was sent conferring the government on Bājīrāv. This omission the *Peśava* considered a breach of faith on the part of Nizām-ul-mulk; but as the Nizām's army was still in Hindustān, and as some of Bājīrāv's best officers and troops were in the Koṅkaṇ he deferred enforcing his claims until a fitter opportunity presented itself. In the meantime he was busy arranging the affairs of the province of Māḷvā and strengthening his connection with the Rajput princes in the western quarter along the banks of the Caṁbaḷ from Koṭā to Allāhābād, but especially with the *Rājās* of Bundelkhaṇḍ.

These arrangements to secure the northern frontier were preparatory to a war with Nizām-ul-mulk or an expedition into the Karnāṭak. The last success against Nizām-ul-mulk, his departure from the terms of agreement, his great age, the probability of contentions among his sons encouraged or stimulated the *Peśavā* to attempt the subjugation of the Deccan.

In prosecution of his plans of conquest in the Deccan, Bājīrav seizing the opportunity afforded by the absence of Nizām-ul-mulk at Delhi, about the end of 1739 began operations against the Nizam's son Nasir Juṅg. Nasir Juṅg was relentlessly pursued and surrounded near Auraṅgābad. He came to terms with Bajīrav and in the beginning of 1740 the districts of Hāṇḍiā and Khargoṇ on the banks of the Narmada were conferred on Bājīrāv in *jāgīr*. The *Peśavā* without visiting Pooṇā or Sātārā, set off with his army towards North India.

In the meantime Manāji Āṅgre was attacked by his brother and applied for help to the *Peśavā's* son Bāḷājī Bajirāv, generally called Nana Sāheb, who was with the *Rājā* in the neighbourhood of Satara. Five hundred men were sent to support the garrison and an express letter despatched to Cimajī Appā for instructions. Cimaji had ordered his nephew to repair to Kolaba in person and applied to the Governor-in-Council at Bombay with whom he had concluded a treaty and maintained a friendly intercourse since his late campaign in the Koṅkaṇ to support the garrison at Kolābā. The English and Bāḷajī had succeeded in humbling Saṁbhājī, Manajī's brother, when Cimājī Appā joined them. They were concerting plans for the reduction of Revdāṇḍā when news reached them of the death of Bajīrav which happened on the banks of the Narmada at Rāver on the 28th of April 1740. On receiving the intelligence, Śaṅkarajī Narayan was appointed *Subhedār* of the Koṅkaṇ and Khaṇḍujī Mānkar was left in command of a body of troops, while Cimājī Appā and his nephew, after the usual mourning ceremonies, returned to Pooṇā and shortly after to Sātārā. Bājīrāv left three sons Bāḷājī Bājirāv, Raghunāthrāv afterwards so well known as Rāghobā, and

Janārdan Bābā who died in early youth. He also left one illegitimate son by a Muhammedan mother, whom he bred as a Musalmān and named Samśer Bahādur.

The army which entered the Karnāṭak under the command of Raghujī Bhosle was composed of troops belonging to the *Rājā*, the *Peśavā*, the *Pratinidhī*, Fatehsiṅgh Bhosle, and various chiefs of lesser note. The Ghorpaḍes of Soṇḍūr and Guṭī were invited to join by letters from Śāhū and the *Peśavā*; and Murārrāv the grand-nephew of the famous Santājī Ghorpaḍe and the adopted son and heir of Murārrāv of Guṭī appeared under the national standard for the first time since the death of his distinguished relation. The whole force amounted to 50,000 men. Dost Ali, the *Navāb* of the Karnāṭak, fell and the *Divāṇ* was made a prisoner. After this, the Marāṭhās began to levy contributions all over the Karnāṭak until bought off by the *Navāb's* son and heir Safdar Ali, with whom, before retiring they entered into a secret comoact to destroy Canda Sāheb then in possession of Trichinopoli. While the main body of his army remained encamped on the Śivgaṅgā, Raghujī Bhosle returned to Sātārā and endeavoured to prevent Bāḷājī Bājīrāv's succession as *Peśavā* by proposing Bābujī Nāik of Bārāmatī, a relative but an enemy of the late *Peśavā*, for the vacant office. Bābujī Nāik was possessed of great wealth and his enmity to Bājīrāv arose from a very common cause *viz.*, thta of having lent money which his debtor could not repay. Raghujī's party used the irritated creditor as their tool and proposed to Śāhū that he should be raised to the vacant *Peśavāship*. But Śāhū turned a deaf ear to Raghujī's oroposals and Bāḷājī Bājīrāv was almost immediately invested with the robes of *Peśavāship* on 25th June, 1740. Raghujī, on finding his schemes abortive, proceeded towards the Karnāṭak to reap the expected harvest at Trichinopoli accompanied by Śripatrav, the *Pratinidhī*, and Fatehsiṅgh Bhosle. Trichinopoli surrendered on the 26th of March 1741, and Canda Sāheb was brought a prisoner to Satārā where he remained in the custody of an agent of Raghujī Bhosle's till he was set free in 1748. Murārrāv Ghorpaḍe was left in command of the fort of Trichinopoli, and a part of his garrison was composed of infantry belonging to the *Peśavā*. Their expenses were defrayed by Śāhū, besides which it was settled that Rs. 29,000 of the share of tribute from the province of Arkoṭ should be annually paid to Bāḷājī Bājīrāv.

One of the first acts of the new *Peśavā* was to forward petitions to Delhī respecting various promises made to his father. These applications were transmitted through Jaysiṅgh and Nizām-ul-mulk. A supply of ready money was what Bāḷājī most earnestly craved and Rs. 15 lakhs as a free gift were granted by the emperor. Proposals for an agreement were then drawn up in the joint names of the *Peśavā* and Cimājī Appā in which they asked to have the government of Māḷvā, which, on the death of Bājīrāv, was conferred on Azam-ullā Khān. If the government of Māḷvā was granted they promised to pay their respects to the

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emperor; to prevent any other Marāṭhā crossing the Narmadā; to send a body of 500 horse under an officer of rank to remain in attendance on the emperor's person; and to ask no more than the gift of money already bestowed. They agreed to send 4,000 horse for service who would punish refractory landholders as far as their numbers would enable them, and they promised not to sequestrate the rent-free lands or *jāgīrs* assigned for charitable or religious purposes. No notice seems to have been taken of the application. But Bāḷājī, whose disposition was conciliatory, was anxious to have the government of Māḷvā conferred as a right according to the treaty with his father. With this object when Nizām-ul-mulk was marching to the Deccan, in order to suppress his son Nasīr Juṅg's revolt, Bāḷājī paid him a respectful visit at Edlābād on January 7, 1741. At this time he sustained a great loss in the death of his uncle Cimājī Appā which happened at the end of January 1741. Eleven days before this event, Khaṇḍujī Mānkar under Cimājī's direction had reduced Caul Revdaṇḍā, the last place remaining with the Portuguese between Goā and Damaṇ. Cimājī Appā from his successes against the Portuguese had earned a reputation among the Marāṭhās for his ability to conduct military operations. He was also highly respected for his purity of private life, particularly in singular contrast in that respect to his elder brother.

On the death of his uncle, the *Peśavā* returned from the northern districts and spent nearly a year in civil arrangements at Poona and Sātārā. Continuing to show the greatest respect for the *Rājā*, he obtained from Śahū a grant by which the whole territory conquered from Portuguese was conferred on him, and also, except in Gujarat, the exclusive right of collecting the revenues and of levying contributions north of the Narmadā. In 1742, Bhāskarpant, the *Divāṇ* of Raghujī Bhosle of Berār, carried his arms eastwards, but the *Peśavā*, eager to establish his power over those territories for which the authority obtained from the *Rajā* was as usual assumed as a right, marched, though late in the season, towards Hindustān and made himself master of Gaḍha and Māṇḍlā before the rains set in. He was obliged to encamp on the banks of the Narmadā during the rainy season, and probably meditated an expedition into Allāhābād when he was called upon to defend his rights in Māḷvā which was invaded by Damājī Gāikvāḍ and Baburāv Sadāśiv. This inroad seems to have been instigated by Raghujī to obstruct the *Peśavā's* progress eastward: and on Baḷājī's arrival in Māḷvā the army of Gujarāt retired. On this occasion Ānandrāv Pavār was confirmed by the *Peśavā* in the possession of Dhār and the surrounding districts, a political measure which not only secured Pavār in his interests, but opposed a barrier on the western side of Māḷvā to incursions from Gujarāt. Since the *Peśavā's* arrival at Māṇḍlā a negotiation had been going on between him and the emperor. The *cauth* of the imperial territory was promised and a khillat more splendid than had ever been conferred on his father was transmitted to Bāḷājī. It does not appear that any deed for collecting this general *cauth* was ever granted by

Muhammad Śāh; sums of money and convenient assignments were the mode of payment. The object in the pending treaty was on the *Peśavā's* part to obtain *sanads* for the promised government of Māḷvā, and on the part of the court of Delhi to procrastinate and to widen the breach between the *Peśavā* and Raghujī Bhosle.

In the meantime Bhāskarpant had invaded Bihār. The Marāṭhā army consisted of 10,000 or 12,000 horse and report had swelled their numbers to nearly four times that number. Bhāskarpant obtained the possession of the town of Huglī and most of the towns from Katvā to the neighbourhood of Midnāpūr fell into the hands of the Marāṭhās. Raghujī also advanced to Beṅgāl. The emperor ordered Safdar Juṅg, the *Navāb* of Oudh, to drive out Bhāskarpant, and at the same time applied to Bāḷājī Bājīrāv to afford his aid. As inducements to the *Peśāvā* an assignment for the arrears of *cauth* due from Azimābād was sent to him by the emperor and an assurance of confirming him in the government of Māḷvā. The reward was prized too highly and the service was too desirable to be refused. On Bāḷajī's approach, Raghujī decamped and retreated towards the hills. Bāḷājī overtook, attacked, and defeated Raghujī's army (April 10. 1743). Bhāskarpant retreated through Orissā and Bāḷājī retired to secure the long-promised government. The *Peśavā's* conduct left no reasonable excuse on the part of Muhammad Śāh for refusing to perform the engagement: but to save the credit of the imperial name, the feeble palliative of conferring the appointment on the *Peśavā* as the deputy of Prince Ahmad. the emperor's son, was adopted. The rest of the treaty differs little from the former proposals made in the joint names of Bāḷājī and his uncle Cimājī, except that instead of 4,000. Bāḷājī promised to furnish 12,000 horse the expense of the additional 8,000 being payable by the emperor. The *Rājā* of Jaipūr between whom and Bāḷājī the most friendly intercourse subsisted, was a guarantee for the observance of treaty with Muhammad Śāh, and Malhārrāv Hoḷkar, Rāṇojī Śinde, and Pilājī Jādhav declared in due form that should the *Peśavā* recede from his duties they would quit his service. The *Peśavā* returned to Sātārā to pay his respects and go through the form of submitting his accounts of the revenue. These accounts were made out by the *Peśavā* as a general in command of a body of the *Rājā's* troops.

In 1744. Raghujī Bhosle sent agents to the *Peśavā* assuring him of his sincere desire of reconciliation and of his conviction that the plans of Bājīrāv were those best suited to his own and to the real interests of the Marāṭhā nation. He continued the same profession with apparent sincerity, but as he was on full march towards Sātārā, the *Peśavā* thought it necessary to be on his guard, particularly as Damājī Gāikvāḍ was also approaching. The *Pratinidhī* had become infirm by sickness, but his *mutālik* Yamājī Śivdev was an active and an able man, averse to the *Peśavā's* supremacy, and, although not leagued with Raghujī,

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intimately connected with the faction of Dābhāḍe. Under these circumstances Bāḷājī Bājīrāv had to choose between a war with the Marāṭhā chiefs or the surrender of Beṅgāl to Raghujī. The question did not admit of hesitation; he chose the surrender of Beṅgal to Raghujī. At the same time as it was understood that the country north of the Mahānadī as well as of the Narmadā was comprehended in his agreement with the emperor, he made a merit of conceding his right to levy tribute to Raghujī, and a secret compact in which the *Rājā* was used as a mediator was finally concluded. The object of the contracting parties seems avowedly to have been not so much an alliance as an agreement to avoid interference with each other. The *Rājā's* authority was in this instance convenient to both. A *sanad* was given to the *Peśavā* conferring on him his original *mokāsā*, all the *jāgīrs* bestowed on himself or acquired by his father or grand-father, the governments of the Koṅkaṇ and Māḷvā, and the shares of revenue of tribute from Allāhābād, Āgrā, and Ajmer; three sub-divisions in the district of Paṭnā, Rs. 20,000 from the province of Arkoṭ, and a few detached villages in Raghujī's districts. On the other hand, it was settled that the revenues and contributions from Lucknow, Pāṭnā and lower Beṅgāl including Bihār should be collected by Raghujī who was also vested with the sole authority of levying tribute from the whole territory from Berār to Cuttack. It was also agreed that Damājī Gaikvāḍ should be obliged to account to the *Peśavā* for the amount of the contributions he had levied in Māḷvā, but nothing was urged at this time respecting the large arrears due from Dābhāḍe to the head of the government. It does not appear that any settlement was concluded, but Damājī seems to have remained in the Deccan, although his presence was much required in Gujarat. The *Peśavā's* southern and eastern boundaries in North India were well defined by the Narmadā, the Śoṇ, and the Gaṅgā but the *sanad* delivered on this occasion authorised him to push his conquests northwards as far as practicable.

Raghujī Bhosle was intent on reviving his lost footing in Beṅgāl; and the *Peśavā* in order to excuse himself to the emperor for not acting against Raghujī remained in the Deccan. As soon as the season opened Bhāskarpant was sent with 20,000 horse into Beṅgal by Raghujī, but he, along with twenty officers, was treacherously murdered on 30th March 1744 by Alivardi Khān in an entertainment near Kalvā and the army retreated to Berār in great confusion. Raghujī himself proceeded to the scene of action, and, although partially defeated near Murśidābād while returning, succeeded in maintaining his hold over Orissā. Shortly after Raghujī had entered Beṅgāl, Bāḷājī Bājīrāv went (1745) to Māḷvā, addressed letters to the emperor full of assurances of perpetual fidelity, but excused himself from paying his respects in the royal presence. The *Peśavā* also sent his agents to Alivardi Khān demanding *cauth* in accordance with the emperor's grant. Thus the *Navāb* now came to be pressed between two enemies, the Bhosle and the *Peśavā*. In

1747 Alivardi Khān was once again severely defeated by Raghujī's son Jānojī at Burdvān. The menace of Bhosle's invasions thus continued to hang over Beṅgāl till at last the *Navāb* came to a settlement with him by a solemn treaty concluded in March 1751 by which the *Navāb* agreed to part with Orissā and pay twelve lakhs of rupees annually by way of *cauth* to be collected from Beṅgāl. As for *Peśavā's* claims it appears they were never implemented, on the plea put up by the emperor that the *Peśavā* had failed to protect Alivardi Khān from the attacks of Bhosle. Soon after 1747 the *Peśavā* came to be far too preoccupied with the affairs at Sātāra to be able to pursue matters relating to Beṅgāl.

In 1746, the *Peśavā* sent his cousin Sadāśiv Cimājī Bhāu accompanied by Sakhārām Bāpu, the writer of Mahādajīpant Purandare, on an expedition into the Karnāṭak to punish some of the *deśmukhs* who had driven out the posts of the *Peśavā's* old creditor Bābujī Nāik Bārāmatikar. The latter at the instigation of Raghuji Bhosle had obtained the *cauth* and *sardeśmukhi* between the Kṛṣṇā and the Tuṅgbhadrā in farm from the *Rājā* for an yearly sum of Rs. 7 lakhs but the opposition he experienced and the heavy charges for maintaining the troops totally ruined him in a few years. The expense of the present expedition added to his embarrassment, but he would not, as was proposed to him, agree to give up the contract in favour of Sadāśiv Cimājī. Sadāśiv Cimājī levied contributions as far as the Tuṅgabhadrā and reduced Bahādur Baṇḍā near Koppal to which the Marāṭhās had a claim of long standing. On Sadāśiv Cimājī's return from this expedition, he was invested by the *Rājā* with the same rank as had been enjoyed by his father, that is second-in-command under the *Peśavā*, and being ambitious and bolder than his cousin, the *Peśavā*, he began to assume considerable power. He chose as his writers Vāsudev Jośī and Raghunāth Harī, two able men brought up under Kānhojī Āṅgre. In 1747 the *Peśavā* himself concluded a new and more specific agreement with the *Rājās* of Bundelkhaṇḍ, by which, after deducting the district which had been ceded to the late *Peśavā*, one-third of the territory estimated at Rs. 16½ lakhs was made over to Bālājī Bājīrāv besides a like share from the profits of the diamond mines of Pannā. During this period of comparative tranquillity the *Peśavā* encouraged agriculture, protected the villagers and grain merchants, and improvement was everywhere visible. But about this time events occurred in North India, in the Deccan, and in the Madrās Karnāṭak which were the forerunners of fresh troubles and great revolutions in every part of India.

Nizām-ul-mulk died in 1748. His son Nasīr Juṅg was soon called upon to de l with the rebellion of his sister's son Muzaffar Juṅg, who had se' ed Arkoṭ. Nasīr Juṅg marched to the south. He was, however, killed while meeting an attack by Candā Sāheb of Arkoṭ and his French supporters. Muzaffar Juṅg was proclaimed as Nizām. But he too was killed shortly after by

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Paṭhāṇ chiefs. The French then raised Salābat Jung the younger son of Nizām-ul-mulk as the Nizam, and accompanied him to the Deccan.

In 1749, the eastern part of the Deccan which was completely drained of troops presented an inviting field to the *Peśavā,* but domestic arrangements of the utmost importance demanded his presence at Sātārā. *Rāja* Śāhū had for some years been in a state of mental imbecility brought on, it was said, through grief for the death of his youngest wife Saguṇābāī of the Mohite family. As his health declined, Śāhū recovered the use of his intellect, and the dependents of the *Peśava* about his person urged him to adopt a son. The *Rāja* on the loss of his only child, some time before his derangement, contrary to all his former invectives against him had declared that he would adopt Sambhājī Raja of Kolhapūr provided he had an issue. As Sambhājī had no children, it was proposed that an inquiry should be made for some lineal descendant of Viṭhojī, the brother of Malojī, the grandfather of the great Śivājī. Search was accordingly made, but none was discovered. It was then suggested that he should take the son of some respectable *śiledār* of the Pāṭīl family. This proposal, Śāhū said, he had a strong reason for declining. For some time he thought of adopting Mudhojī who was the son of Saguṇābāī's sister and who belonged to the Bhosle family of Nāgpūr. Tārābāī, who had been all the while carefully watching the course of events, was quick to see that there was a golden opportunity for her to fish in the troubled waters. She declared that she had a grandson Rāmrāja, Śivājī's posthumous son born in 1726 at Panhāḷā whose life she had managed to save by the exchange of another infant born at the same time. Because of the probable danger to his life the prince's existence had been kept a secret by getting him conveyed out of the fort of Panhāḷā. The child was subsequently carried to Tuljāpūr and thence to Bārśī in Śolāpūr district, where he was brought up in obscurity. The exchanged infant, said Tārābāi, soon expired and as it was widely taken to be the death of the prince, his existence elsewhere of the real prince remained a well guarded secret. Such an assertion on the part of Tārābai, did not of course meet with universal credence. Even Śahū at first hesitated to put implicit faith in the story, but after satisfying himself with some proof and words of faith he came to be inclined to accept the story as true. It was, however, loudly asserted by the partisans of Sambhājī that the so-called son of Śivājī was spurious and plans were pursued to oppose his claims to Sātārā. The elder surviving wife of Śāhū, Sakvārbāi of the Śirke family, on being acquainted with the declaration on the part of Tārabāī which deprived her of all charge of power, also incited Sambhāji to oppose the alleged grandson of Tārābāī whom she declared an impostor. She promised to aid Sambhājī to her utmost, and engaged Yamājī Śivdev in her cause. Jagjivan, the younger brother of Śripatrāv who had been appointed *Pratinidhī* on the death of Śripatrāv in 1747 also promised her all the support in his power. Damājī

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Gāikvāḍ gave his assent to the proposal, and emissaries were despatched into the Ghāṭmāthā and the Koṅkaṇ, a tract ever prone to soldiery, to raise men and be prepared for her purpose. Bāḷājī Bājīrāv repaired to Sātārā with an army of 35,000 men, to guard his own interests, as also to prevent any untoward development. While the interested parties were thus busy in their own plans Śāhū lay on his death bed (1749) vigilantly attended by Sakvārbāī, who as has been pointed out was opposed to the accession of Rāmrājā. The *Peśavā*, however, caught an opportunity to obtain a secret interview with Śāhū whose inclinations he promised to honour and give effect to. The *Rājā* therefore signed a note empowering the *Peśavā* to govern the whole Marāṭhā confederacy (*Rājmaṇḍal*, as it is actually called in the note) on condition of his not entertaining the claims of Saṁbhājī and assuring the *Peśavā* that whosoever succeeded as *Chatrapatī* would continue him in the office of the *Peśavā*. This paper also directed that Kolhāpūr State should always be considered an independent sovereignty; that the *jāgirs* now existing were to be confirmed to the holders, leaving power to the *Peśavā* to conclude such arrangements with the *jāgirdārs* as might be beneficial for extending Hindu power, for protecting the temples of God, the cultivators of the fields, and whatsoever was sacred or useful. The *Peśavā* now resolved to act decisively yet cautiously. Although he knew Tārābāī's capacity of intrigue very well he considered it most expedient to support the assertion of Tārabāī although he might have his own doubts about her avowals, for he knew that the voice of the country was too strong and an heir of the house of Śivājī would have been joined by thousands. Saṁbhaji at this stage was out of the picture and Sakvārbāī would have liked to adopt a scion from the Nāgpūr branch because she could only thus maintain her supremacy after the death of her husband; but Sakvarbāī, to conceal her plot, always gave out that in the event of Śahū's death she would perform *satī*. This declaration proved her ruin, for the interested parties took care to circulate the report until it became so general that its non-fulfilment would, in the eyes of the whole country, have been a reflection on the honour of the family. Śāhū breathed his last on 15th December, 1749. Tārābāī came down from the fort to have a last look at him. Govindrāv Ciṭnis went and conversed with her. She advised Govindrāv to arrange that Sakvārbāi should become *satī*. The *Ciṭṇis* reported this proposal to the *Peśavā* who consulted the *Pratinidhi*, Fatehsiṅgh Bhosle and others. They unanimously supported Tārābāī's suggestion about Sakvārbāī becoming *satī*. Her brother Kānhojī Śirke was sent for. He went and communicated the proposal to his sister. Sakvārbāī had not yet recovered from the first emotions of consternation and rage at finding her plans frustrated; for, within a few moments of *Rājā's* death a body of horse had galloped into the town of Sātārā. Every avenue about the town was occupied by troops and a garrison of the *Peśavā* was placed in the fort, while a party was detached to reinforce the escort of Rāmrājā who had not

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arrived when Śāhū died. In this situation as she revolved in her mind the proposal of her brother, she came to the conclusion that if she refused and lived after her husband she would have to suffer untold miseries at the hands of the *Peśavā* who was strong enough to control the situation. The brother returned and communicated her assent. Then preparations were made. Along with Sakvārbāī two of Śāhū's concubines, Lakṣmī and Sakhu, also burnt themselves on the same pyre.

Rāmrājā.

Immediately after Śāhū's death the *Peśavā* put Sakvārbāī's partisans, the *Pratinidhi* and his *Mutālik* Yamājī Sivdev, under arrest. Orders were also sent in his name to Yeśvantrāv Dābhāḍe and Raghuji Bhosle requiring their presence at Sātārā. Yeśvantrāv Dābhāḍe had become totally imbecile by debauchery, and as had probably been foreseen neither Dābhāḍe nor Damāji Gāikvāḍ, the commander of his army, attended. Most of the other *jagirdārs* were present, but if any were disposed to resist the *Peśavā's* authority, they remained passive until they should see what part Raghujī Bhosle would play. Raghuji's ambition was now controlled by the caution of age and the teaching of experience. He was not only intent on directing yearly raids into Beṅgāl, but owing to the absence of his son Jānojī in the Karnāṭak with 10,000 horse and to the number of troops which he was compelled to leave in his own territories he arrived at Sātārā in the month of January 1750, with a force of only 12,000 men. His disposition was pacific towards Bāḷājī but he made some demur in acknowledging Rāmrāja. He required, in testimony of his being Bhosle and the grandson of Rājārām, that Tārābāī should first eat with him in the presence of the caste, deposing on the food they ate together that Rāmrājā was her grandson. When this was complied with in the most solemn manner, Raghuji declared himself satisfied; and after a long conference with the *Peśavā* he gave his assent to the propriety of the plans submitted for his consideration. As a proof of the good understanding which subsisted between them, Bāḷājī took occasion to proceed in advance to Pooṇā, leaving the *Rājā in* Raghujī's charge, and requesting that he would accompany him to Pooṇā with the whole of the *Jāgirdārs*, for the purpose of concluding the arrangements made by the will of the late *Rājā*, Śāhū. It may also be noted that in the note left by Śāhū, Raghujī had been expressly excluded from succession. From this period (1750) Pooṇā took the place of Sātārā as the main centre of activities of the Marāṭhās.

In the success of his schemes, Bāḷājī almost overlooked Tārābāī who though upwards of seventy years of age, soon convinced him that it was dangerous to slight a woman of her spirit. On pretence of paying her devotions at her husband's tomb at Sinhagaḍ near Pooṇā she went there and endeavoured to persuade the Pant Saciv to declare for her as head of the Marāṭhā empire. Bāḷājī, after much persuasion, induced her to come to Pooṇā, and having flattered her ambition with the hope of a large share in the administration, at last obtained her

influence with Rāmrājā in confirming the many schemes he had now to carry into effect. Raghujī Bhosle received new deeds for Berār, Goṇḍvan, and Beṅgāl, and some lands which had belonged to the *Pratinidhī* adjoining Berār. The title deeds for half of Gujarāt were sent to Yeśvantrāv Dābhāḍe, which, as he had never yet accounted for a share of the revenue to the state, gave Damājī Gāikvāḍ to understand what he might expect from the growing power of the *Peśavā*. The whole of Māḷvā estimated to yield about Rs. 150 lakhs of yearly revenue except about Rs. 10 lakhs was divided between Hoḷkar and Śinde, and Rs. 74½ lakhs were conferred on Hoḷkar and Rs. 65½ lakhs on Śinde. The remaining Rs. 10 lakhs were held by various *jāgirdārs* of whom Ānandrāv Pavār's share was the most considerable. All of them were subservient to the views of the *Peśavā* and from them he had no opposition to fear. Bāḷāji Bājīrāv, without intending to employ them, confirmed the eight *Pradhāns*, and for a short time nominated Gaṅgādhar Śrinivās as *Pratinidhī*, but on the application of Raghujī Bhosle and of some other *jagirdārs*, when about to return to their districts, he made them a promise to release Jagjivan Paraśurām and accordingly restored him to his rank and liberty. As the *Rājā's* establishment was to be much reduced, and it was necessary to secure in his interests such of his officers as he could not employ, the *Peśavā* reserved a great part of the *Pratinidhi's* lands as *jāgīrs* and assignments to the persons in question, particularly the tract west of Karhāḍ between the Urmoḍī and the Varṇā where he apprehended an insurrection supported by the *Rājā* of Kolhāpūr. Fatehsiṅgh Bhosle, the adopted son of Śāhū, was confirmed in the possession of his *jāgīr*, in various minor claims, in shares of revenue, and in the title of *Rājā* of Akkalkoṭ, which, except the detached claims alluded to, were being enjoyed by his descendants till the time of merger. An appointment created by Śāhū for a relation of the Mantrī, which was termed *Ajāhut sardeśmukh* or general agent for collecting the *sardeśmukhī* was nominally preserved; but *jagīr* lands were assigned in lieu of the right of interference in the collection of the ten per cent on the six *subhās* of the Deccan. The appointment of *Sarlaṣkar* was taken away from the family of Somvaṁśi and given to Niṁbājī Nāik Nimbāḷkar. All these changes and appointments were made in the name of Rāmrāja, but it was now well understood that the *Peśavā's* authority was supreme in the State and generally admitted without dissatisfaction. Yamājī Śivdev, who recovered his liberty at the same time with the *Pratinidhi*, occupied the fort of Sāṅgolā near Paṇḍharpūr where he raised an insurrection and made head against the *Peśavā* until he was suppressed by the *Peśavā's* cousin Sadāśiv Cimājī. In the measures which have been detailed the *Peśavā* owed much of his success to his *Divāṇ* Mahādajīpant, who, next to his cousin Sadāśivrāv, possessed greater influence over Bāḷājī Bājīrāv than any of his advisers. Sadāśivrāv on his expedition to Sāṅgolā was accompanied by Rāmrāja for the purpose of giving Yamājī Śivdev no excuse for resistance. During their stay at that place,

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the *Rājā* is said to have agreed to renounce the entire power and to lend his sanction to whatever measures the *Peśavā* might pursue, provided a small tract round Sātārā was assigned to his own management, conditions to which Bāḷājī subscribed but which actually were never realised. The *Rājā* under a strong escort returned from Sāṅgolā to Sātara. The *Peśavā* in order to soothe Tārābaī whose great age did not render her less active and intriguing, incautiously removed his troops from the fort of Sātara, and having placed in it the *gaḍkaris* and old retainers who had great respect for the widow of Rājārām, gave up the entire management to her. The *Raja* was kept with a separate establishment in the town of Sātārā, but perfectly at large, and a splendid provision was assigned to him and his officers, the expense of which amounted to the yearly sum of Rs. 65 lakhs.

In 1751, when the *Peśavā* left for Paṅgal, south of Hyderabad to confront Salābat Juṅg, the Nizām, then returning to Hyderabad, Tarabāī sounded Rāmrajā in regard to his assuming the control usurped by his servant Bāḷājī, the *Peśava*; but not finding him fit for her purpose, she pretended to have no serious intentions in the proposal. At the same time she sent messengers to Damajī Gaikvāḍ, representing the unguarded state of the country and recommending his immediate march to Sātārā to rescue the *Rājā* and the Marāṭhā State from the power of the *Peśavā*. Damaji at once acted on this request and Tārābāī, as soon as information was received of the Gāikvāḍ's approach, invited the *Rājā* into the fort of Sātārā and made him prisoner. She then reproached him for want of spirit; regretted that she had ever rescued him from a life of obscurity for which only he could have been destined; declared that he could not be her grandson or the descendant of the great Śivājı; that he was neither a Bhosle nor a Mohite, but a baseborn Gondhaḷī changed in the house where he had been first conveyed, and that she would make atonement on the banks of the holy Kṛṣṇā for ever having acknowledged him. She ordered the *havīldār* to fire upon his attendants, most of whom unconscious of what had happened remained near the gate of the fort; and she directed the guns to be pointed at the houses in the town below belonging to the partisans of the *Peśavā*. Trimbakpant commonly called Nānā Purandare. Govindrāv Ciṭnis, and the officers in the *Peśavā's* interests at Sātārā were at first disposed to ridicule this attempt as that of a mad old woman, but on hearing of the approach of Damājī Gāikvāḍ from Songāḍ, they quitted the town and assembled troops at the village of Arla on the banks of the Kṛṣṇā. On the advance of the Gāikvāḍ by the Sālpā pass, although they had 20,000 and their opponent only 15,000 men they made an irresolute attack and retired to Nimb about eight miles north of Sātārā where they were followed the next day, attacked, and defeated by the Gujarāt troops. Damājī Gāikvaḍ immediately went to pay his respects to Tārābāī, and several forts in the neighbourhood were given to her. Sātārā was well stored with provisions, and the *Pratinidhī* promised to aid Tārābāī's cause. News of these proceedings reached the

Peśavā. Before he returned Nānā Purandare had redeemed his lost credit by attacking and compelling the army of Damājī Gāikvāḍ to retire to the Jore Khorā (Jore valley) about twenty-five miles north-west of Satārā where they expected to be joined by the *Pratinidhī* from Karhāḍ and by troops from Gujarāt. In this hope they were disappointed; and as Śaṅkarājīpant, *subhedār* of the Koṅkaṇ, was assembling troops in their rear and the *Peśavā's* army which had marched nearly 400 miles in thirteen days was close upon them, Damāji sent a messenger to treat with Bāḷājī. Bāḷājī solemnly agreed to abide by the terms proposed and enticed Damāji to encamp in his neighbourhood, where, as soon as he got him into his power, he demanded the payment of all the arrears due from Gujarat, and the cession of a large portion of his territory. Damaji represented that he was but the agent of Dābhāḍe the *Senapati*, and had no authority to comply with what was required. On this reply the *Peśavā* sent private orders to seize some of the family of the Gāikvaḍ and Dābhāḍe, who lived at Taḷegāṅv in Pooṇā, and treacherously surrounded, attacked, and plundered the camp of Damāji Gāikvāḍ and sent him into confinement at Pooṇā. This defeat of Damāji, instead of damping the spirits of Tārabāī, only served to incense her still more. The imprisonment of Ramrāja was made more strict. Guards and servants were made to suffer indescribable hardships on ground of suspicion. The *Pratinidhi* was deprived of his post on the ground of incapacity. At the same time she started a low intrigue with the Nizām's Court offering the *Peśavāship* to his minister, Rāmdāspant. It is difficult to understand how in all this she was serving the Marāṭhā State. Perplexing as the affair was, Tārabāī's conduct in the end proved advantageous to the *Peśava* as it took from him the odium of being the first to confine the *Rāja* to the fort of Sātārā. Tārābāī did not merely confine Ramrāja to the fort. His prison was a damp stone dungeon and his food was of the coarsest grain. Damājī Gāikvāḍ was the only man whom the *Peśavā* dreaded, but as he was now a close prisoner at Pooṇā, Bāḷājī proceeded towards Auraṅgābād in prosecution of his engagements with Ghazi-ud din. Rāmdāspant, *Rājā* Raghunāthdās as he was also called, the *Divāṇ* of Salābat Juṅg, opened a communication from Ahmadnagar with Tarābāi and Sāṁbhājī of Kolhāpūr.

During Bāḷājī's absence at Auraṅgabād, Tārābāī occupied the districts of Wāī and Sātārā aided by 5,000 or 6,000 Marāṭhās and Rāmośis whom she had employed in her service. A large force was sent by the *Peśavā* to invest Sātārā and starve her into submission. Ānandrāv Jādhav, the commandant of the fort, convinced of the folly of resistance, formed the design of carrying the *Rājā* out of her power. When this came to her knowledge she ordered him to be beheaded; a sentence which the garrison executed on their own commander, as well as on several others subsequently implicated in a like scheme. Bāburāv Jādhav, a person unconnected with the late commandant and a relation of the Jādhavs of Sindkheḍ was appointed to the command of the fort. In 1753, the *Peśavā* before leaving for the Karnāṭak

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endeavoured to pave the way to a compromise with Tārābāī. On his march to the Karnāṭak he sent to assure Tārābāī that if she would submit, the control of the *Rājā's* person and establishment should remain at her disposal. To this Tārābāī would not listen to unless Bāḷājī Bājirāv would come to Sātārā, acknowledge her authority, and give, such personal assurances as would satisfy her. Encouraged by the approach to Poonā of Jānojī Bhosle, the son and heir of Raghujī Bhosle, and on assurances of safety and protection from the *Peśavā*, Tārābāī, leaving the garrison of Sātara and the custody of Rāmrājā's person to Bāburav Jādhav repaired to the *Peśavā's* capital accompanied by Bimbājī Bhosle, the youngest brother of Jānojī who had attached himself to her party and married one of her relations of the Mohite family. At Pooña Tarābāī was received with so much attention and consideration that she agreed to the *Peśavā's* proposals as formerly made, provided he would promise to accompany her to the temple of Jejurī and there solemnly swear to abide by his present declarations. The *Peśavā* consented on condition that Bāburāv Jādhav should be dismissed, to which Tārābāī reluctantly agreed. This reconciliation between Tārābāī and the *Peśavā* was the result of a great tact and restraint, with which the *Peśavā* tickled womanly pride and showed her the futility of any opposition to his designs. Rāmrājā, however, according to the conditions of agreement with her, continued to remain in confinement, even in later years up to the time of her death which took place in 1761. On the whole it must be said that Rāmrājā was a prince deficient in ordinary ability, and the miserable thraldom he underwent during the long confinement broke his spirit and ruined his health.

Before Śāhū's death (1749), little improvement had taken place in th civil administration of the country. Bāḷājī Bājīrāv (1740—1761) appointed fixed *māmlatdars* or *subhedārs* each of whom had charge of several districts. The territory between the Godāvarī and the Kṛṣṇā including the greater part of Sātārā, the best protected and most productive under Marāṭhā rule, was entrusted to the *Peśavā's* favourites and courtiers, some of whom were his relations. They held absolute charge of the police, the revenue, and the civil and criminal judicature, and in most cases had power of life and death. They were bound to furnish regular accounts, but they always evaded settlement. They governed by deputies and remained at Court whether in the capital or in the field in attendance upon the *Peśavā*. Their districts were in consequence extremely ill-managed and in very great disorder; the supplies furnished for the exigencies of the State were tardy, and in comparison with the established revenues, insignificant. The beginning of a better system is ascribed to Rāmcandra Bābā Śeṇvī and after his death Sadāśivrāv Bhāu improved on his suggestions. Bāḷājī Bājīrāv *Peśavā* was sensible of the advantage to be gained from bringing the collectors under control. He had not sufficient energy for the undertaking himself, but he supported his cousin's measures *Pañcāyats*, the ordinary tribunals of civil justice, began to improve, because the supreme power, if it did not always examine and uphold their decrees, at least did not

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interfere to prevent the decisions of the community. In short the condition of the whole population was in his time improved and the Marāṭhā peasantry sensible of the comparative comfort which they then enjoyed have ever since blessed the days of Nānā Sāheb *Peśavā*.

Peśavā Bāḷājī Bājīrāv.

To counter the Nizām's interference in Marāṭhā politics, Bāḷājī Bājīrāv brought in Gāzi-ud-din, the eldest son of Nizām-ul-Mulk as a claimant to the viceroyalty of the Deccan. Gāzi-ud-din ceded the province of Khāndeś to the Marāṭhās. On his sudden death in 1752, the Marāṭhās forced the Nizām Salābat Juṅg to confirm the cession of Khāndeś. Jālnā and Saṅgamner (which included Nāśik and Triṁbak) also passed under the control of the Marāṭhās. Following the departure of the French, the Nizām was defeated near Udgīr in 1760 and made to part with Bijāpūr, Solāpūr and other districts including Ahmadnagar which had been earlier captured by the Marāṭhās.

In the north the Marāṭhās undertook the conquest of the Puñjāb on behalf of the Moghals. The province had been ceded to Ahmad Śāh Abdāli, the king of Afghāṇistān. The Marāṭhās occupied Lāhore. On the arrival of Ahmad Śāh they fell back. This Afghāṇ-Marāṭhā conflict led to the great struggle at Pānipat.

Death of Bāḷājī Bājīrāv.

In 1761 the Marāṭhās sustained the crushing defeat of Pānipat, and *Peśavā* Bāḷājī who never recovered from that terrible blow died on June 23, 1761. Immediately after his death Mādhavrāv the second son of the *Peśavā* Bāḷājī Bājīrāv, then in his seventeenth year, went to Sātāra accompanied by his uncle Raghunāthrāv and received investiture as *Peśavā* on 19th July, from the nominal *Rājā*, who remained in precisely the same state of imprisonment under the obdurate Tārābāī, until her death on 9th December 1761 at the age of eighty-six at Sātārā. Therefore, the *Peśavā* Mādhavrāv I formally crowned Rāmrājā at Śahunagar on 23rd March 1763. Since then his lot became much improved, although he was not allowed to assert himself as *Chatrapati*, a role for which he possessed neither the training nor the capacity. He was only allowed to appoint agents for the management of his estates in several villages and the collection of his other hereditary claims as *deśmukh* of Indapur.

Patwardhans of Sangli.

As the Paṭvardhans have been closely associated with the history of the Marāṭhās during the post-Pānipat period and as they figured during the subsequent British rule as rulers or *jagirdārs* of small principalities such as Saṅgli, Miraj and Tāsgāṅv in this district, it is convenient at this stage to follow the later history of the district along with the family history of the Paṭvardhans. The founder of this family was one Har or Hari Bhaṭṭ *bin* Ballam Bhaṭṭ, a native of the village of Kotavḍā in the Ratnāgirī district. This man, after distinguishing himself by a long series of devotional austerities, was appointed *upādhyā* or family priest to Nāro Mahādev, chief of Icalkarañjī in the Kolhāpūr State. On the occasion of the marriage of this chief's son to the daughter of

Bāḷājī Viśvanāth, the first *Peśavā*, in 1713* Har Bhaṭṭ was brought to the notice of the *Peśavā*, and his sons Govind and Rāmcandra were ere long taken into the service of the latter. A third son Trimbak obtained service with the *Rājā* of Akkalkoṭ. After the death of Bāḷājī Pant *Peśavā*, Har Bhaṭṭ's family continued to enjoy the favour of his successors, and Govindrāv with his son Gopāḷrāv took an active part in the events of Bāḷājī Bājīrāv's reign. In 1759 Gopāḷrav distinguished himself in certain operations against the *Nawāb* of Sāonur, half of whose territory was surrendered to the *Peśavā* who subsequently gave a part of it as *jahagīr* to Rastes and Paṭvardhans. He also received from the *Nawāb* a grant in *inām* of the fort of Doḍvad, with the land assigned for its support, which formed part of the present possessions of the Paṭvardhan family. It was in the reign of the *Peśavā* Madhavrāv Ballāl, however, that the fortunes of the Paṭvardhans reached their zenith. In 1761 the fort of Miraj with some *thaṇās* and customs duties was assigned to Govindrāv for the maintenance of troops[1]. In the course of the struggle between Madhavrav and his uncle Raghunathrāv, the Paṭvardhans consistently supported the *Peśava* but were for a time deprived of their *jagir* by Raghunathrav when for some time he had been in charge of the Maraṭhā affairs. The disaffected Paṭvardhans even joined the Nizām but the quarrel was soon made up and the Paṭvardhans were restored to their *jagīr* in 1763. In the same year *sarañjamī* lands of the annual rental of upwards of Rs. 25 lakhs were assigned to him in association with his nephews Paraśurām Ramcandra and Niḷkaṇṭh Trimbak Paṭvardhan for the maintenance of 8,000 horse. The *sarañjām* was composed of a number of districts situated in different parts of the country between the 15th and 18th parallels of north latitude, some lying to the north of Paṇḍharpūr and others being so far south as the Tuṅgabhadrā. The most compact portion of the *sarañjam*, as well as the richest, was that in the neighbourhood of Miraj and adjoining the eastern frontier of Kolhāpūr. The headquarters of *sarañjāmdārs* were here, and the intention of the *Peśavā* evidently was to hold the *Rājā* of Kolhāpūr in check by the establishment of such a powerful *sarañjām* in his immediate vicinity. A considerable part of the Paṭvardhan's possessions being near the Mysore frontier the duty devolved on them of watching Haidar Ali also and bearing the first brunt of his attacks when he and his son chose to invade the Marāṭhā territory.

Gratitude to their benefactor Madhavrāv led the Paṭvardhans to aid that *Peśavā* actively in his struggle for power with his ambitious uncle and guardian Raghunathrāv, generally known as Rāghobā Dādā. Whenever the latter gained the upper hand he showed his resentment, as by the attack and capture of Miraj on one occasion (in 1762), but his enmity was not so dangerous as the vindictive feeling which descended to his son Bājīrāv, the

**Life of Gopal Govind Patwardhan* by R. A. Lagu, page 7.

[1] For an early historical account of Miraj, see Miraj in Places of Interest.

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last of the *Peśavās*, which nearly occasioned the ruin of the Paṭvardhan family, as will be seen further on. Besides taking a prominent part in the internal politics of the Marāṭhā empire during Mādhavrāv's reign, the Paṭvardhans were actively employed in all the campaigns against Haidar Ali and in the war with Jānojī Bhosle of Nāgpūr. Before the death of Mādhavrāv the grant of the *sarañjām* was renewed to the family, the title deeds being made out in the names of Vāmanrāv, the brother of Gopāḷrāv, and his cousins Paraśurām Rāmcandra and Raghunāthrāv Nilkaṇṭh. Though the family was not as yet divided, these chiefs resided severally at Miraj, Tāsgāṅv and Kurundvāḍ, and may be said to represent separate branches. In addition to the *sarañjām* Mādhavrāv bestowed on the Paṭvardhans during his life-time the districts of C koḍi and Manolī, but they never held these districts for any length of time continuously.

After the death of Mādhavrāv *Peśavā* and the murder of his brother and successor Nārāyaṇrāv, the Paṭvardhans followed the standard of Raghunāthrāv until it became known that the widow of the murdered *Peśava* was in a condition that gave hopes of an heir to the *gādi*. The celebrated Nānā Phaḍṇavis then formed a council of regency, governing in the name of the widow, but the Paṭvardhans did not openly take part against Raghunāthrav till the birth of Mādhavrāv Nārāyaṇ put him in the position of an usurper. They then openly espoused the cause of the infant *Peśavā*, but they soon had to leave Pooṇā for their own territory to aid in repelling invasions made by Haidar Ali from different quarters.

Even before the death of their great patron Mādhavrāv Ballāḷ the Paṭvardhans had been engaged in constant hostilities with the *Rājā* of Kolhāpūr, and these hostilities were now carried on with great vigour, as the *Rājā* had entered into alliance with Raghunāthrav in conjunction with Haidar Ali of Mysore, who advanced with the declared intention of taking possession of the whole country south of the Kṛṣṇā. The Paṭvardhans, therefore, took no part in the war with the English which broke out at this time, as they were fully occupied with their hostilities against Kolhāpūr and with resisting the invasion from Mysore. In the latter operations they were not very successful as they suffered more than one severe defeat, and Pāṇḍuraṅgrāv, the brother of Gopāḷrāv was wounded and taken as a prisoner to Śriraṅgapaṭṭam, where he died[1].

Paraśurām Bhāu

The leadership of the Paṭvardhans then devolved on his cousin Paraśurām Bhāu. After some rather unsuccessful operations against Haidar Ali, a temporary truce, it would appear, left Paraśurām Bhāu at liberty to return to his own capital and carry on the war with the Kolhāpūr *Rājā*, from whom he took Akevat, Śirol, and Bhudargaḍ. A treaty was then concluded with the *Rājā*, and the Paṭvardhan Chief was thus enabled to

[1] Gopalrao died in 1771.

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proceed to Pooṇa where he arrived in time to play a very distinguished part in the war with the English, which followed the repudiation of the convention of Vaḍgāṅv in 1779. The success of the operations against General Goddard, by which that officer was compelled to retreat from Khaṇḍāḷā to Bombay with heavy loss, was attributable in a great measure to Paraśurām Bhāu's skill and exertions.

The Paṭvardhan Chief was next employed against Ṭipū of Mysore, who attempted to reduce the fort of Nargunḍ. By specious promises the latter induced the Marāṭhās to retire, and as soon as they were out of the way seized Nargunḍ and Kittur. These acts brought on a war which lasted for about a year. Peace was then concluded, but very soon the conduct of the Mysore prince led to the formidable combination of the English, the Nizam, and the Marāṭhās, who in 1790 commenced operations against him. Paraśuram Bhāu was appointed to command Marāṭha forces on this occasion. In conjunction with a British detachment under Captain Little he besieged Dharvār for seven months, after which the place capitulated (6-4-1791). He then took the fort of Kuśgal and after waiting to realise the revenue of the district joined the other Marāṭhā commander Haripant, and moved towards Śrirangapaṭṭam, which was being besieged by Lord Cornwallis. Before they arrived, however, the British were compelled by want of provision to raise the siege and make a hasty retreat.

Marāṭhās met the retreating British troops at Melkoṭe about 20 miles north of Śrirangapaṭṭam. They had with them huge supplies of grain with which they relieved the starvation of the British armies. "The Bazar of the Maratha camp presented the greatest variety of articles, English broad-cloth, Birmingham pen-knives, the richest Kashmir shals, rare and costly jewellery together with oxen, sheep, poultry and all that the most flourishing towns could furnish"* Cornwallis, Paraśurām Bhāu and Haripant had a very cordial meeting on 28th May at Moti Talav followed by conferences and deliberations on the best plan to be followed hereafter against Ṭipū Sultān. The campaigning season had then drawn to a close, the rains had already begun to fall, and the Kāverī was in flood. It was therefore decided to defer an attack upon Śrirangapaṭṭam till after the rains and utilise the interval in preparing for an effective assault. Paraśurām Bhāu was then detached from the main army, with Captain Little, to keep open the communications with the north. He preferred, however, to utilise his time and means by taking possession of the district of Bednur, and this occupation delayed him so long that, though repeatedly summoned by Lord Cornwallis, who had resumed the siege, he only arrived at Śrirangapaṭṭam just as the armistice which preceded the treaty with Ṭipū had been arranged.

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*Marshman as quoted in Sardesai, III, p. 188.

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On his return to Tāsgāṅv Paraśurām occupied himself with a war with Kolhāpūr. In the course of this his son was defeated and taken prisoner. Though the latter was treated kindly and at once released, the Paṭvardhan, incensed at the repulse, renewed hostilities with such vigour that the town of Kolhāpūr was only saved from capture by the submission of the *Rājā* who agreed to pay Rs. 3 lakhs and to give hostages for the payment of the amount. Not long after this war was declared against Nizām Ali, and Paraśurām Bhāu commanded the Marāṭhā army on the last occasion when all the Marāṭhā chiefs assembled under the *Peśavā's* standard. In the battle of Khardā he had a narrow escape of his life, but was saved by the bravery of his son to win a decisive victory.

In 1795. the *Peśavā* Mādhavrāv died. As the heir to the *gādi* was Bājīrāv, the son of Raghunāthrāv, whom Nānā Phaḍṇavis and the Paṭvardhans had always opposed and whose schemes they had been the main instruments of defeating, they resolved to prevent his succession by getting the widow of the deceased prince to adopt a son. Bājīrāv, however, heard of this and secured the services of Daulatrāv Śinde. The result of this step was that his opponents thought it advisable to come to terms with him and accept him as the *Peśavā*. A series of plots and counterplots ensued. Paraśurām Bhāu and Nānā Phaḍṇavis conceived the idea of getting Bājīrāv's brother Cimājī Appā adopted by Nārāyaṇrāv's widow and invested as *Peśavā*, and in pursuance of this plot had him seized and invested against his will. The two chief conspirators however, had for some time past been suspicious of one another, and just at this juncture Nānā fled to the Koṅkaṇ under the apprehension that Paraśurām Bhāu was about to make him a prisoner. An open rupture then took place. Nānā made overtures to Bājīrāv and incited the *Rājā* of Kolhāpūr to attack Paraśurām Bhāu's *jāgir*, while Paraśurām gave up Nānā's *jāgir* to Śinde and appropriated his houses at Pooṇā. The long series of intrigues finally ended in the apprehension of both by Śinde.

Struggle with Kolhāpūr.

Paraśurām Bhāu, however, was not long kept in confinement, as a general was wanted to oppose the *Rājā* of Sātārā who had collected forces and was assuming independence. The Paṭvardhan offered his services, which were accepted. He soon defeated the *Rājā*, but on the completion of this duty was much too wary to disband his troops. He then offered to head the contingent intended to co-operate with the English in the new war with Ṭipū that broke out in 1799. Owing however to the duplicity of Bājīrāv the promised aid was never given to the British, and part of the force intended to co-operate with them was turned against the *Rājā* of Kolhāpūr who had been actively employed for some time in recovering the places that had been taken from him by the Paṭvardhans, and in overrunning and pillaging Paraśurām Bhāu's *jāgir*, in the course of which operations the latter's palace at Tāsgāṅv was burnt to the ground. Incensed at these losses Paraśurām Bhāu without waiting for reinforcements, hurried on operations against the *Rājā* who was aided by

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Struggle with Kolhāpūr.

Citursiṅg, the brother of the *Rāja* of Sātārā. His eagerness and resentment were such that he kept the field during the rainy season. In September he encountered the Kolhāpūr troops under the *Rājā* at the village of Paṭṭankuḍi, where he was defeated and mortally wounded (16-9-1799). It was reported at the time that as the wounded chief lay on the ground Viśvāsrāv, brother of the notorious Sarjerāv Ghāṭge, took him up on his horse and carried him to the *Rājā*. He was "so highly gratified at this success that in a fit of revenge he inflicted indignities on the dead body and prevented the funeral rites being performed.[1]"

Rāmcandrarāv Āppā Sāheb, eldest son of the deceased chief, fled after the battle to Pooṇā to implore the aid of the *Peśavā*. This was readily granted, and a considerable force consisting of the Viñcurkar's and the *Pratinidhī's* troops and five of Śinde's regular battalions under European officers were despatched to Kolhāpūr. The force met with a slight check at Śiroḷ, but was reinforced and advanced to the capital. The *Rājā* was there defeated and obliged to flee to Panhāḷā, and the siege of the town was begun. The siege was raised in consequence of an intrigue at Pooṇā. On the death of Nānā Phaḍṇavis, which took place during the siege, the *Peśavā* arranged with Śinde that the latter should attack and possess himself of the late Paraśurām Bhāu's territory. The besieging force then broke up, Śinde's battalions marching on Tāsgāṅv and Appā Sāheb flying to the Karnāṭak leaving his *jāgir* to be overrun and devastated.

Efforts of the English to restore the estate of Paṭvardhans.

Orders were then sent from Pooṇā to the *Peśavā's sar subhedār* in the Karṇāṭak, Dhoṇḍo Pant Gokhale, to sequestrate the Paṭvardhan's territory in that province. As the *sar subhedār* was engaged in hostilities at the time with Dhuṇḍia Vāgh, a freebooter who had escaped from Śriraṅgapaṭṭam, and was now plundering the country at the head of a considerable force, he kept the order secret, and thus got the Paṭvardhans to co-operate with him. When he was killed shortly afterwards in an engagement with Dhuṇḍia he was accompanied by Cintāmaṇrāv Paṭvardhan (the son of Pāṇḍuraṅgrāv whose death at Śriraṅgapaṭṭam, has been noted above), who was wounded on the occasion. After Gokhale's death Cintāmaṇrāv joined Colonel Wellesley (afterwards the Duke of Wellington), who had been sent to put down Dhuṇḍia, and the two sons of Paraśurām Bhāu shortly afterwards joined the British forces. The Paṭvardhans tried to get the English general to join them in an attack on Kolhāpūr, but he declined to do so, and managed to keep the peace between his allies. The result of the combined operations was that Dhuṇḍia, on the 10th of September 1800, was defeated and killed at Konagal. At the suggestion of the British Resident at Pooṇā the order for the sequestration of the Paṭvardhans' districts in the Karnāṭak was rescinded, and Colonel Wellesley handed over the districts released from the grasp of Dhuṇḍia to

[1] Sardesai : *New History of the Marathas*, Vol. III, p. 345.

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the sons of Paraśurām Bhāu. The duplicity of Bājīrāv's conduct, however, at this time was such that the Paṭvardhans seriously entertained the notion of entering the service of the Mysore prince, but the project was not carried out. Just at this time Śinde was obliged to remove his troops from Tāsgāñv in consequence of the war with Hoḷkar, and the Paṭvardhans were then enabled to return to their homes.

At the end of 1802, the *Peśavā*, driven out of Pooṇā by Hoḷkar, signed the treaty of Bassein and General Wellesley marched from Śriraṅgapaṭṭam to restore him to his capital. The Paṭvardhans immediately joined him and begged him to obtain for them the good offices of the British Resident. He did his best to reassure them, though the conduct of Bājīrāv, even at this juncture, was such as to make them naturally most suspicious, and they accompanied him to Pooṇā. After the restoration of the *Peśavā*, General Wellesley looked into the claims of the Paṭvardhans before him, and promised to do justice. Āppā Sāheb and Cintāmaṇrāv were induced to visit Bājīrāv and further promises were made, but nothing had been settled when the British General left Pooṇā to carry on the war against Śinde and the Bhosle. He had hoped that the Paṭvardhans and other Marāṭhā chiefs would join him, but they met with no encouragement from the *Peśavā* to do so, and, indeed, seem to have been secretly dissuaded by him.

Their conduct on this occasion nearly led to the ruin of the family. At the close of the war, Bājīrāv, on the pretence of rewarding those who had done good service and punishing those who had failed to render due assistance, determined to make over the lands of the Paṭvardhans to Bāpū Gokhale. As the latter felt himself unable to take over the *sarañjām* without the assistance of the English, he applied to General Wellesley. Without deciding whether or not such aid would be given, which was for the Governor-General's consideration, the British commander pointed out in forceful language the impolicy, the injustice, and even the ingratitude of the course the *Peśavā* wished to pursue towards the Paṭvardhans. In writing to the Governor-General he recapitulated all the arguments he had used, and suggested that the *Peśavā's* formal consent should be obtained to the British Government acting as arbitrator between him and the southern *jāgirdārs*. This suggestion was approved, and Mr. E. Strachey was appointed to conduct the enquiries and negotiate the proposed settlement. Before leaving the Southern Marāṭhā Country, General Wellesley took advantage of an interview he had with Hari Paraśurām at Tāsgāñv, to point out what just grounds of complaint the Paṭvardhans had on their part given to the *Peśavā*, and to show how matters might be settled satisfactorily.

The proposed settlement, however, fell through for the time in consequence of the unwillingness of both the parties concerned to avail themselves of the means thus offered to them of putting matters on a satisfactory footing. Bājīrāv only wanted

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to ruin the Patvardhans and displayed his characteristic duplicity, while they, on the other hand, distrusted him and had an exaggerated notion of their own power. The British Government, therefore, withdrew its mediation and left the *Peśavā* and the *jāgirdārs* to settle matters between them as they best could. The latter consequently assumed a semi-independent position, and only attended to the requisitions of the Pooṇā Government when it suited them to do so. Cintāmaṇrāv even harboured free-booters pursued by Bājīrāv's troops, and actually attacked the *Peśavā's* districts. The latter, in the meantime, consolidated his position by crushing a number of minor *jāgirdārs* and watched his opportunity for dealing similarly with the Patvardhans.

Pandharpūr Settlement, 1811.

A struggle was thus impending between these *jāgirdārs* and their sovereign, which would have led to most serious consequences. Mr. Mount Stuart Elphinstone, the Resident at Pooṇā, perceived this, and saw that if the war commenced it would probably spread and affect British interests. He, therefore, proposed to the Governor-General in 1811 a scheme of mediation similar in most respects to that which General Wellesley had suggested. On this being approved he submitted to the *Peśavā* a draft of the terms which he thought should be offered, and having obtained his consent, he proceeded to Paṇḍharpūr at the head of a force strong enough to crush opposition, and summoned the Patvardhans. After some delay and attempts at evasion the latter accepted the terms. They thus bound themselves to give up all land and revenues which they had usurped and were holding without authorisation; to serve the *Peśavā* according to the conditions on which they held their *sarañjām*; to carry on no hostilities unless duly authorised to do so, and to submit their disputes to the *Peśavā*. On the other hand, the *Peśavā* agreed to take no notice of past offences and to revive no old claims while the British Government guaranteed to the *jāgirdārs* their lawful possessions so long as they served the *Peśavā* with fidelity.

Jāgir divided.

About this time several divisions of the *sarañjām* took place among the members of the Patvardhan family which require notice. The first division was between Cintāmaṇrāv and his uncle Gaṅgādharrāv. The latter, on the death of his brother Pāṇḍuraṅg-rāv, had been left guardian to his nephew and, with the proverbial policy of a paternal uncle under such circumstances had appropriated a considerable portion of his ward's property. Cintāmaṇrāv in 1801 set to work to recover his possessions, and acted with such vigour that Gaṅgādharrāv had to shut himself up in the fort of Miraj, where he would have been besieged had not the other members of the family interposed and persuaded the uncle and nephew to agree to an amicable division. This arrangement was, in 1808, sanctioned by the *Peśavā*, who further exempted Gaṅgādharrāv from feudal allegiance to the senior branch of the family. It was arranged, too, that Gaṅgādharrāv should have the fort of Miraj, Rs. 1 lakh being assigned to Cintāmaṇrāv for building a fort at Sāṅglī, which he made his headquarters. The example thus set was followed by other members of the family.

In 1811 the sons of Paraśurām Bhāu divided their father's estate into two portions, Jamkhiṇḍī valued at Rs. 4,54,160 and subject to the service of 1,278 horse, being held by the elder Rāmcandrarāv and Tāsgānv valued at Rs. 2,08,77, with service of 640 horse by the younger brother Gaṇpatrāv. In the same year the Kurundvāḍ branch was also divided and the separate estate of Kurundvāḍ with a revenue of Rs. 1,27,989 and subject to the service of 280 horse was held by Trimbak Raghunāth and that of Śeḍbāḷ or Kāgwāḍ with a revenue of Rs. 1,00,691 and subject to the service of the same number of house, i.e., 280 was held by Gaṇpat Konher Rāv.*

CHAPTER 2. History. MARATHA PERIOD. Paṭvardhans of Sāṅglī, Jāgīr divided.

The settlement of Paṇḍharpūr secured its main object, the preservation of the peace of the country, by putting a stop to the disputes between the *Peśavā* and the Paṭvardhans, but the relations between the two parties continued to be anything but cordial. The leading members of the family, however, were with Bājīrāv when the treaty of Pooṇā was signed on 3-6-1817,[1] and though Cintāmaṇrāv had been very violent in his opposition to this engagement, the Resident secured the interests of the Paṭvardhans by a special article (number 16) in the treaty. The text of the article is as follows: "Whereas certain articles of agreement (six in number) regarding the settlement of the southern Jagheerdars were presented by the Resident at Poona is His Highness Row Pundit Prudhan Bahadur on the 6th July 1812 A. D., to which. after a modification suggested by His Highness and submitted to him on the seventh of the same month, His Highness gave his entire consent, those articles are hereby recognised and declared to be binding on both parties as much as if they formed part of the present treaty, and whereas various disputes have arisen regarding the muster of the troops of the said Jagheerdars and the manner and period of their service, His Highness Row Pundit Prudhan Bahadur hereby agrees to be entirely guided by the advice of the British Government with regard to those subjects, and to issue no orders to the Jagheerdars without full concert with the British Government. His Highness hereby agrees to restore to the said Jagheerdars any of the lands included in their sunnuds which may now be in His Highness's possession."[2].

This article was most distasteful to Bājīrāv, and it was not till he had exhausted every form of remonstrance that he agreed to it reluctantly.

Settlement of 1818.

Immediately after the attack on the Residency at Pooṇā and the battle of Khaḍki in November 1817, Mr. Elphinstone sent circular letters to the *jāgirdārs* setting forth the causes of the war with the Peśavā, and advising the several chiefs to withdraw their troops and stay quietly at home, in which event they would be guaranteed

* West: *Memoir of Southern Maratha States*, p. 30.

[1] Aitchison, Vol. III, p. 79.

[2] *Treaties and Engagements*, Vol. III by C. V. Aitchison, p. 85, article XVI 1863.

Selections from the Records of the Bombay Government No. C XIII new series.

A Memoir of the states of the Southern Maratha Country drawn up for Government by Captain Edward W. West 1869.

against any loss of territory or dignity. The Paṭvardhans who had joined the *Peśavā's* standard after the battle did not immediately respond to this invitation, but some of them sent *vakils* to the Resident. With a view to deprive them of any grounds for hostility against the British, Mr. Elphinstone instructed General (afterwards Sir Thomas) Munro 'To treat the country immediately under the *Peśavā* and the *jāgir* of Gokhale as hostile, and that of all the other *jāgirdārs* as friendly'. General Munro was also entrusted with the task of making a settlement with the *jāgirdārs* based on that of Paṇḍharpūr, and was authorised to offer considerable additions to the possession of those who should come in within a specified period. The Paṭvardhans did not by any means comply with the letter of the communication made to them by the British authorities, but they at a very early period of the war, ceased to render any but a very nominal assistance to the *Peśavā*, and most of them left his camp before long on one pretext or another.

General Munro having been obliged by ill health to leave the Southern Marāṭhā Country before the completion of the task assigned to him, Mr. Elphinstone himself negotiated with the several chiefs and fixed the terms granted to them. These terms were similar for the most part to those agreed on at Paṇḍharpūr in 1811, but some additional clauses were inserted to secure the due administration of justice in the *jāgirdār's* territory and to prevent criminals from the neighbouring British districts being harboured there. The strength of the contingents to be supplied for service was considerably reduced and personal *tainātś* or attendants were granted to several members of the family. The terms offered were gladly accepted by all except, Cintāmaṇrāv of Sāṅglī, who declined to serve the British Government and was allowed to cede territory of the annual rental of Rs. 1,35,000 in commutation of service. The chiefs with whom treaties were thus made were Cintāmaṇrāv of Sāṅglī, Gaṇpatrāv of Miraj.[1] Gaṇpatrāv of Tāsgāṅv, Gaṇpatrāv of Śeḍbāḷ, Keśavrāv of Kurundvāḍ, and Gopāḷrāv of Jamkhiṇḍī. Diplomatic correspondence between Cintāmaṇrav and Elphinstone during the critical years 1817 to 1819 throws light upon the chief's desperate perseverance to maintain his position of independence. As per Paṇḍharpūr agreement of 1812, he was first called upon by Elphinstone in his letter of 10-10-1817 to join Bājīrāv in his fight against the Peṇḍhārīs; but finding that the forces of Bājīrāv had adopted a threatening attitude towards the English which at last led to the battle of Khaḍkī, Elphinstone blamed Cintāmaṇrāv for having joined the *Peśavā*. Thereupon Cintāmaṇrāv was quick to expose the inconsistency of Elphistone's attitude towards him and said that Paṇḍharpūr agreement in no case had enjoined him to leave his master, the *Peśavā*, and join the Company in case of a conflict between the two. Subsequently Cintāmaṇrāv was called upon by Chaplin, the Commissioner of the Deccan, in October 1818 to muster his forces to

[1] The treaty was made in his name as he was the head of the Miraj branch of the family, but since he was a minor at the time his estate was managed and all negotiations were carried on by his uncle Madhavrao.

suppress a rising in the south and a *kārkun* was sent to inspect the muster. Cintāmaṇrāv objected to the *kārkun* coming for such an inspection and argued that he would accept none except the *Peśavā* as his superior and that it would be against the will of Gaṇapati (Paṭvardhan's family deity) to submit to any one else. He, however, promised to help the British as their ally. Later on he issued a proclamation of independence and sent a copy of it to Elphinstone. Matters having reached a point of crisis, Elphinstone sent an ultimatum to him and ordered his forces which reached Mhaisāḷ near Sāṅglī. At last before 1819 Cintāmaṇrāv saw the utter helplessness of his position and submitted. History indeed would record him as a bright spark of the dying flicker of Marāṭhā independence.

CHAPTER 2. History. MARATHA PERIOD. Patvardhans of Sāṅglī. *Settlement of 1818.*

BRITISH PERIOD.

Very shortly after coming under the British Government the members of the Miraj branch of the Paṭvardhan family claimed a division. As their claim was in accordance with precedent it was admitted and the Miraj portion of the *sarañjām* was divided into four separate estates. About the same time the Jamkhiṇḍī portion of the *sarañjām* was divided and the separate estates of Jamkhiṇḍī and Ciñcṇī were formed. In 1854 a division took place in the Kurundvāḍ estate as the brothers and nephew of the Chief insisted on a separation, which was allowed by Government.

Policy of British Rulers towards adoption.

As several holders of estates in this family had no heirs of their body the question of the right to adopt very soon came before the Government. The principle was then enunciated that in such cases adoption was not a right but a favour, the granting or refusing of which lay with the paramount power, and Government declared its intention of not granting this favour except under special circumstances, such as for instance in the case of a Chief who had distinguished himself by his good administration or in other ways. Under this rule the following estates lapsed to Government, the holders having died without leaving male issues; Ciñcṇī in 1836; a share in the Miraj estate in 1841; another share in the same estate in 1845; Tāsgāṅv in 1849; and Śeḍbāḷ or Kāgvāḍ in 1857. All such incidents of lapse created a climate of discontent amongst the rulers, which was smouldering until it burst in the form of the great struggle of 1857. Adoptions had been allowed in the two last cases, but, as the adopted persons after holding the estates died without male heirs of their body, further adoptions were not allowed. Besides these instances, adoptions were sanctioned in the Sāṅglī, Miraj and Jamkhiṇḍī families. As all the chiefs of the Paṭvardhan family except the younger chiefs of Kurundvāḍ, subsequently received *sanads* from Lord Canning permitting them to adopt, there was to be no further lapse in default of male heirs of the body.

In 1848, the contingents furnished by the Paṭvardhan Chiefs were done away with, and this service was commuted to an annual money payment.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

BRITISH PERIOD.

Patvardhans of Sāṅglī.

The sums paid to the British Government on this account were Rs. 12,558 for Miraj Senior, Rs. 6,412 for Miraj Junior, Rs. 9,619 for Kurundvāḍ and Rs. 20,840 for Jamkhiṇḍī.

Policy of British Rulers towards adoption.

As a rule the Paṭvardhan family showed much loyalty towards the British Government. During the insurrection in Kolhāpūr in 1844 Cintāmaṇrāv of Sāṅglī rendered most cordial and effective aid to the authorities. Afterwards when tried by the more severe test of the mutinies of 1857-58 the conduct of the Paṭvardhan Chiefs, with one exception, was such as to gain the thanks of Government.

Later events.

The changes that took place in the personnel of the existing Paṭvardhan States since the subversion of the *Peśavā's* dynasty and their engagements with the British Government may be briefly cited. In Sāṅgli Cintāmaṇrāv Āppā Sāheb died on the 15th July 1851 and was succeeded by his son Dhuṇḍirāv Tātyā Sāheb, who was born in 1838. Before the birth of the latter another son of Āppā Sāheb had died leaving a widow, who adopted a son. The old Chief was very anxious that this adoption should be recognised by the British Government, and finally his request was acceded to on the usual condition of *nazarāṇā* being paid. When this sanction was accorded, however, Cintāmaṇrāv was expecting an issue by his wife, and consequently did not care enough about the adoption to pay the *nazarāṇā*. He made a will before his decease, fixing an allowance to his adoptive grandson Vināyakrāv, the succession to the State devolving, as above stated, on his son. In 1873, during the regime of the Chief Dhuṇḍirāv, the British Government, in consequence of abuses in administration, appointed Captain West as joint administrator of the State; but the Chief held himself aloof and did not associate with him at all. In July 1878 Major Waller assumed charge of the office of the joint administrator in succession to Captain West. In August 1880 Government were pleased to restore the Chief to his former position, on his promise to look after the administration. The joint administrationship however continued long afterwards. Dhuṇḍirāv died on 12th December 1901 at the age of 63. He was succeeded on 15th June 1903 by his adopted son Cintāmaṇrāv who was a minor. Sāṅgli however remained under the rule of administrators, first under A. B. Desai from 1901 to 1905 and then under Captain Burke from 1905 to 1910 in which year the administration passed over to Cintāmaṇrāv as he came of age. He continued to rule the State till 1947.

After the division of the Miraj estate as above narrated, the headship of that branch of the family, the fort of Miraj, and the largest portion of the *sarañjām* remained with Gaṇpatrāv Tātyā, whose brother Moreśvarrāv lived with him. The latter demanded a further division, which would have been effected but for the death of Gaṇpatrāv in 1833, on which event Moreśvarrāv withdrew his claim for a division, and was appointed guardian to the two young sons of his deceased brother, Gaṅgādharrāv

and Nārāyaṇrāv, who were aged seven and five years, respectively. He died in 1839, and the management of the minors' estate remained in the hands of two ministers, until Gaṅgādharrāv Bāḷā Sāheb assumed the administration in 1849. In recognition of the latter's loyal conduct during the mutiny, he was allowed in 1859 to adopt, having no heirs of his body, and on his death in 1861 was succeeded by his adopted son Gaṇpatrāv Tātyā Sāheb. The young Chief being a minor, arrangements were made for his education and for the management of his estate during his minority. He assumed the administration in 1817, and was shortly afterwards appointed a member of the Legislative Council of Bombay. Gaṇpatrāv Tātyā Sāheb died in November 1874. His widow in June 1875 adopted, with the sanction of Government, Gopāḷrāv, the younger grandson of Vināyakrāv Bhāu Sāheb of Sāṅglī, who received on his adoption the name of Gaṅgādharrāv. He was at the time in his tenth year. During the minority of the Chief the State was held under the direct management of the Southern Marāṭhā Agency. On his coming of age in 1887 he was placed in charge of the administration. He was popularly called Bāḷāsāheb.

The second share in the Miraj *sarañjām* devolved, as above stated, on Mādhavrāv, who died in 1859 and was succeeded by his son Lakṣmaṇrāv Aṇṇā Sāheb. Lakṣmaṇrāv died in February 1876 and was succeeded by his son Hariharrāv. The latter died soon in May 1877, leaving an infant son Lakṣmaṇrāv, who also met his death before attaining majority. The *jāgir* passed on to Raghunāthrāv of Kurunḍvād who was adopted in 1899, named Mādhavrāv and placed in charge of the *jāgir*. During the period from 1877—99 the *jāgir* was managed by joint *kārbhāris* under Government supervision.

Keśavrāv, the Chief of Kurundvāḍ, died in 1827 leaving four sons named Raghunāthrāv, Hariharrāv, Vināyakrāv, and Triṁbakrāv, all minors. The eldest was placed in charge of the estate in 1837, and before long a division was claimed by the younger brothers, which, after much correspondence, was finally sanctioned in 1854. The estate of Kurundvāḍ was thus divided into two parts, the larger portion remaining with Raghunāthrāv Dādā Sāheb, and the rest being assigned to Gaṇpatrāv Bāpu Sāheb (son of Hariharrāv who had died), Vināyakrāv Āppā Sāheb, and Triṁbakrāv Ābā Sāheb. The last named Chief died in 1869 without male issue and it was decided that his share of the estate should devolve on his brother Vināyakrāv and his nephew Gaṇpatrāv, the elder brother being excluded from the succession. Raghunāthrāv of the senior branch died in January 1876 and was succeeded by his son Cintāmaṇrāv. He was also popularly called Bāḷāsāheb. He was nominated a member of the Legislative Council twice, first in 1895 and then in 1903. His efforts however to start a lottery in his State were prohibited by the British Government. He died on 16th February 1908 and was succeeded by his elder son Bhālcandra *alias* Aṇṇāsāheb.

CHAPTER 2. History. BRITISH PERIOD. Patvardhans of Sāṅglī. *Later events.*

Gopālrāv, the Chief of Jamkhiṇḍī, died in 1840, having before his death adopted with the sanction of Government a boy then seven years of age, who received on adoption the name of Rāmcandrarāv Āppā Sāheb and who, after receiving some education, was invested with the administration of his estate in 1853. He was arrested on suspicion of his complicity in the rebellion of 1857* but was subsequently released in 1859. He died on 12th January 1897 and was succeeded by his adopted son Paraśurām Bhāusāheb.

Kurundvāḍ forms part of the present Kolhāpūr district and Jamkhiṇḍī is in Belgāṅv but as the rulers of all the places were Patvardhans, their family history has been grouped together and presented here.[1]

Reviewing the successive divisions and sub-divisions of Patvardhan *jāgirs,* one is inclined to take the view that both Bājīrāv and the successive British rulers were not interested in preventing such sub-divisions and on the whole accepted with some passive approval the growing weakness that such divisions inevitably brought in them.

Jath History.

The family of the Jath Chief claims descent from Lakhmājī bin Eldojī Cavhāṇ, headman of the village of Ḍaphḷāpūr. Lakhmājī had two sons Satvājīrāv and Dhoṇḍjirāv. In 1680 Satvājīrāv, who had entered the service of Ali Ādil Śāh, king of Bijāpūr, on paying a succession fee or *nazarāṇā,* was appointed *Deśmukh* of the sub-divisions of Jath, Karajgi, Bārdol, and Vanvad; Satvājīrāv continued to be one of the leading Bijāpūr nobles till the State was overthrown by Auraṅgzeb in 1686. He assumed independence for a few days, but finally submitted to Auraṅgzeb, receiving Jath and Karajgi in *jāgīr,* and Jath. Karajgi. Vancad, and Bārdol as *vatans.* Satvājīrāv's two sons, Bābājī and Khanājī, died about 1700 before their father. On Satvājī's death in 1706 without heirs, Yesubāī, the wife of his eldest son Bābājī, succeeded. On her death in 1754 Yesubāī was succeeded by her nephew Yeśvantrāv. In 1759 Yeśvantrāv died and was succeeded by his son Amṛtrāv. Amṛtrāv was succeeded by his son Khanajirāv, who had two wives Reṇukābāī and Sāḷubāī. In 1818 Reṇukābāī made a treaty with the English under which all her possessions were confirmed to her. In 1823 Reṇukābāī died and was succeeded by Sāḷubāī who administered the State for ten months and died without leaving a male issue. The State was then attached by the *Rājā* of Sātārā, but in 1824 it was granted to Rāmrāv, son of Nārāyaṇrāv a member of the same family. In 1835 Rāmrāv died leaving no male issue. The *Rājā* of Sātārā again attached the State and managed it till 1841, when it was granted to Bhāgirathibāī the widow of Rāmrāv. In 1841, with the permission of the Sātārā Government, Bhāgirathibāī adopted Bhimrāv, son of Bhagvantrāv. Bhimrāv on his adoption took the name of Amṛtrāv II.

*G. V. Apte : *History of Patwardhan family* (Marathi), p. 189.
[1]The genealogy of the Patwardhans is given on P. 144.

During Amṛtrāv's minority the State was managed by Bhāgirathibāī till her death in 1845. On Bhāgirathibāī's death Sākhojīrāv Sāvant was appointed *kārbhārī* or manager, and remained in office till Amṛtrāv came of age and took charge of the State in 1855. Mr. Rose, the Political Agent for the Sātārā territories, still chose to thrust upon him one Sadāśiv Ballāḷ Kibey as *kārbhārī*. Very soon Amṛtrāv and Sadāśiv Ballāḷ quarrelled. Mr. Rose treated Amṛtrāv callously and told him on 25th February 1857 that if he interfered any more with the *kārbhārī* he would be deposed. This turned Amṛtrāv to the nationalist movement and he made common cause with others like him. On 24th August 1857 Mr. Rose telegraphically communicated to Elphinstone that "Jath Estates have always inclined to be troublesome. Information direct from Shorapur reveals an intention there to co-operate with the Shorapur Raja". Thereupon a proclamation was issued in 1858 and guns, arms and ammunitions from Jath as also from elsewhere, were confiscated.* In 1872 owing to numerous complaints of oppression on the part of Amṛtrāv, the Government of Bombay ordered Captain, later Lieutenant Colonel, West to make inquiries into the alleged grievances. The result of these inquiries was that both the civil and the criminal administration was taken out of the Chief's hands. The Chief of Jath, who was styled *Deśmukh*, was a Marāṭhā by caste and ranked as first class *sardār* under the British rule. Besides small sums on account of rights in other districts, the chief paid to the British Government a yearly tribute of Rs. 4,739 on account of *sardeśmukhi* rights in the Sātārā district and of Rs. 6,400 in lieu of furnishing *svārs* or horsemen. In 1884 the powers of the Chief were withdrawn. A *kārbhārī* or manager was appointed with the powers of a first class subordinate judge in civil cases, and of a first class magistrate in criminal cases.

CHAPTER 2. History. BRITISH PERIOD. Jath History.

The small State of Ḍaphḷāpūr consisting of six villages, lies to the west of Jath. In the nineteenth century it was managed by a lady, Bāisāheb Lakṣmibāī Ḍaphḷe, who exercised the powers of a magistrate of the first class and in civil matters of a first class subordinate judge.

Ḍaphaḷāpūr.

The district of Sāṅglī is a recent creation made as late as in 1949. It was then known as South Sātārā and it has been renamed as Sāṅglī since 1961. It is partly made up of a few *tālukās* which once formed part of the old Sātārā district and partly of the States and *jāgirs* belonging to Paṭvardhans, and Ḍafles which came to be merged during the post-independence period. As the nineteenth century advanced, the historical scene naturally shifted from the princes to the people; but it must be said that by and large, the subjects living in Paṭvardhan States on the whole enjoyed the benefits of benign rule and were not envious of their counterparts in the north ruled directly by the British. Such of the *tālukās* as were parts of Sātārā district, *viz.*,

MODERN PERIOD.

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* V. S. Shrivastav: *Patriots and Traitors*, Part I. *Probing of Happenings in Maharashtra, Jath and other places*, p. 49.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

MODERN PERIOD.

Khānāpūr, Vāḷvā, Tāsgāṅv and Śirāḷā naturally came under the orbit of political and social activities that were initiated at the district place; but on the whole these areas remained backward both in constitutional agitation, as also in social and cultural reforms. People remained conservative and orthodox, constantly engaged in litigation and quarrels, with the result that at one time South Sātārā had the largest toll of crime in the whole of the then Bombay Presidency. To the law abiding and progressive section of the people, the neighbouring States soon proved a force of gravitation. Labour was absorbed in the industry at Kirloskarvāḍi, in the railway workshop at Miraj and in the textile mills at Sāṅglī, which (latter) also became a great market centre dealing with such agricultural commodities as groundnut, gur, turmeric and jowar. Miraj also proved to be a great centre of traffic and communications from where it was convenient to proceed to Belgāṅv, Kolhāpūr, Ratnāgirī and Koṅkaṇ, Paṇḍharpūr and Śolāpūr and also to Pooṇā and Bombay. Scarcity of water-supply which had acted as a handicap and prevented Miraj from developing itself into full vigour, has recently been removed and Miraj bids fairly to be a great commercial nerve centre of the southern part of Mahārāṣṭra, just as it had been a halting place for generals for campaigning towards Goā and Koṅkaṇ in historic times. The middle class anxious to benefit itself by English education could also take advantage of many high schools started at Miraj and Sāṅglī where living was comparatively cheap and students used to be encouraged by a number of concessions. With the starting of the *Rayat Śikṣaṇ Saṁsthā* by Bhāurāv Pāṭil, South Sātārā parts under British Rule came to have its branches in a number of places. To those given to cultural pursuits, States were no less an attraction: partly because Sāṅglī not only was the birth place of the Marāṭhī stage, but maintained its traditions to give to the whole of Mahārāṣṭra stalwart dramatists like Govind Ballaḷ Deval, Keśavrāv Chhāpkhāne and Kṛṣṇājī Prabhākar Khāḍilkar, as also because the rulers of Sāṅglī and specially Miraj munificently patronised the Marāṭhī stage. The rulers of Miraj again were great patrons of Hindu gymnasium, *ākhāḍās* as they are popularly called, from where distinguished gymnasts emerged challenging others and claiming superiority in their attainment of the games of wrestling and *malkhamb*. Vāḷvā, Tāsgāṅv, and Islāmpūr distinguished themselves in *tamashas*. Paṭṭhe Bāpurāv Kuḷkarṇī of Reṭhre in Vāḷvā *tāluka* is known for his own style and skill in *tamasha*. The *tālukās* are strewn with religious centres such as Audumber, Kavaṭhe Mahāṅkāḷ and Kharsuṇḍi which are minor places of pilgrimage where people of the locality gather at different times of the year. The great centres of pilgrimage are of course Paṇḍharpūr and Kolhāpūr both of which do not fall in this district. It is significant to note that although the Paṭvardhan rulers were great devotees of Gaṇapatī and the ruler of Sāṅglī tried to maintain the worship of Gaṇapatī in the form of a separate State establishment (*Saṁsthān*) Gaṇapatī worship never became popular amongst the masses who

ever remained great devotees of Viṭhobā, Śaṅkar or Goddess Bhavānī.

Reviewing the course of political agitation in this part in pre-Gandhian era, it must be said that it was not much more than a feeble imitation of the constitutional forms that emerged from Pooṇā and Sātārā. However, once Mahātmā Gāndhi was on the scene South Sātārā *tālukās* under British rule distinguished themselves by their substantial contribution to the movement started under his direct or indirect influence. In the Civil Disobedience movement of 1930—32 the forest *satyāgraha* of Biḷāśī was of such intensity that it was echoed on the floor of Parliament in England. In the Quit India Movement of 1942 also Vāḷvā *tālukā* was in the forefront. Men like Vasantrāv Patīl, Vyankatrāv Pawar and Nana Patil used to address mass meetings and hold the audience spell-bound by using brief and telling rustic phrases and expressions in the course of their speeches. In fact in 1942 a stage had reached for a time at least, when the British rule ceased to be operative in certain parts in and round Vāḷvā *tālukā*. Why an area which had been so backward and politically dormant in pre-Gandhian days should so suddenly emerge into life and activity is a topic worth being carefully examined by those who would like to study the psychological aspects of political movements. Be that as it may, a student of history must put it on record that the South Sātārā *tālukās* under British rule have played their part in the Freedom Movement of India.

Turning to the regions ruled by Princes, *viz*., Āṭpāḍī, (under the Pratinidhī of Aundh) Jath, Miraj, and Sāṅglī some pertinent remarks are called for, especially in case of the last. As to Āṭpāḍī it may be said now that the rulers of Aundh were not only progressive but they sympathised, of course secretly, with the struggle for freedom going on in the British territory during the Gandhian period. Aundh and Āṭpāḍī afforded an area where the participants in the underground movement of 1942 could escape and make it difficult for the British authorities to execute their decrees except through an elaborate legal procedure on a higher level. As to Jath and Miraj, the rulers of neither place took any keen interest either in granting constitutional rights and thus following the spirit of the times, or in sympathising, or for that matter opposing, either the Civil Disobedience movement of 1930—32 and the Quit India agitation of 1942. The position of Sāṅglī was distinctly different. The ruler was benign, cultured, conscious of the spirit of the times, and anxious to make some political concessions to the people, but unwilling to part with the substance of power readily so that a few political privileges used to be conferred under a facade of great pomp of *Durbār* speeches that echoed in a hollow manner the liberal philosophy of the times. Anxious to be in the good books of the imperial power and equally anxious to be called a good ruler he continued to make a tight rope dancing for over 30 years, in which it must be said he largely succeeded. It was he who was invited to be one among the Princes called at the First and Second round Table Conferences of 1930 and 1931. It was

CHAPTER 2. History. MODERN PERIOD.

also he, who always benefited himself by the advice of independent minded men like Prof. P. M. Limaye, the retired Principal of the Willingdon college at Kupwad which is very near Sāṅglī, A. V. Paṭvardhan of the Servants of India Society and G. R. Abhyankar who was foremost among the political agitators of the subjects of Southern Mahārāṣṭra States.

The credit of creating a political awakening among the educated section of the people of these States really belongs to the Deccan State Peoples' conference, the first session of which was held at Poonā in 1921 largely through the efforts of the late Shri N. C. Kelkar and A. V. Paṭvardhan. The leaders were very moderate in their demands as can be seen from the speech of Mr. G. R. Abhyankar, the President of the conference, in which he said there is no harm whatever in bestowing immediately upon the Rayat Sabha the rights enjoyed by the legislatures in British India in 1909.[1] Thus even in 1921 the leaders of States subjects hesitated to ask for the people that element of responsibility which had already been extended by the rulers of British India to their subjects. If the leaders of the States subjects were moderate the ruler was still more so, with the result that the people were some what associated with the work of administration but they were not allowed to share responsibility at all. This was followed by a scheme of decentralisation and administration of the State through a Council consisting of four members including the *Diwāṇ* all nominated. With the passing of the Government of India Act of 1935 by which India was organised on a federal basis, the ruler of Sāṅglī decided to join the federation, although, as is well-known, that part of the Act was destined never to become operative. Things began to move fast in the forties of this century. In 1941 a kind of dyarchical form of government was introduced in Sāṅglī[2] and it was replaced in 1946 by an autonomous form somewhat on the lines of the autonomy enjoyed by the provincial governments in British India since 1937. In the same year the rulers of Deccan States met at Kolhāpūr[3] with the intention of forming a Union of Deccan States, so that they could organise themselves into a sizeable unit in the new political set up that was being proposed for India by the Cabinet Mission. The scheme was forged and approved, and the rulers agreed to form themselves into a Board which would exercise only a limited and constitutional sovereignty over the Union State. This was followed by a Covenant[4] by which the rulers agreed to pool their several individual sovereignties together. On 17-10-1947 the covenant was signed among others, by the rulers of Sāṅglī and Miraj.

Things, however, were moving fast and the political map of India was changing if not already changed. On the 15th of August 1947 the British withdrew as a paramount power in India leaving the rulers of Indian States the absolute monarchs in their

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[1] *Sangli State* 1910—48, p. 91.
2 *Ibid*, p. 164.
3 *Ibid*, p. 249.
4 *Ibid*, p. 255.

respective States. This was found in fact to be too dizzy an eminence for the Princes to occupy and hold. Then followed the period of accessions and standstill agreements with the new Dominion Government of India; and soon afterwards occurred the landslide of mergers, integrations and unions which brought the totality of Indian States within the framework of the Indian Union either by complete absorption or varying patterns of federal relationship[1]. Sāṅglī was merged with the State of Bombay on 8th March 1948 by the agreement of merger entered into between the Government of India and His Highness the Rajasaheb on 19th February 1948. The Rajasaheb ruled over his State worthily and well and he renounced his power equally well, after holding it for close over 40 years.

This rapid survey of constitutional movement would hardly reflect faithfully the state of affairs that prevailed at Sāṅglī during the pre-Independence period. Sāṅglī symbolised a model of administration where people and the press enjoyed maximum civil liberty. Judiciary discharged its functions in an atmosphere untrammelled by executive interference. G. R. Abhyankar who was ever on the vanguard of political agitation amongst States' subjects was a citizen of Sāṅglī and could carry on his activities in the State, with freedom and confidence that was a matter of surprise and envy even to the people of British India and which was hardly to be outdone in any other State. Cintāmaṇrāv as a ruler of Sāṅglī had his limitations but no smallness of mind or petty considerations ever influenced his actions so long as it was given to him to be on the *gādi*. In short, peace, progress as well as culture and awakening steadily grew in the atmosphere of civil liberty that prevailed at Sāṅglī. The extinction of the State, was inevitable in the inexorable order of things.

[1] *Ibid*, p. 156.

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History.

GENEALOGY OF THE PATWARDHANS.

Harbhat Patvardhan[1] (Born about 1665-died about 3-10-1750).

1. Kṛṣṇabhaṭ, 2. Bāḷambhaṭ, 3. Rāmacandrapant. 4. Trimbakpant Appā. 5. Govindpant Nānā. 6. Bhāskarpant Aṇṇā.

1. Lineage of Kṛṣṇabhaṭ Hari (died March 4, 1765).

- Nārāyaṇ
- Meghaśyām Bāpu.
  - Janārdan.
- Mādhavrāv Aṇṇā (Died March 1772)

2. Moroba-Son of Bāḷambhaṭ, Śripatrāv-son of Morobā.

3. Lineage of Rāmcandra Hari (died 1749). His son Parśurambhāu (of Tāsgāṅv) Born July 7, 1740 died Sept. 1799*.

- Rāmcandra Appā (died 1814)
- Haribābā Jamkhiṇḍikar.
- Mādhavrāv Dājī
- Gaṇpatrāv Bāpu.

4. Lineage of Trimbak Hari, the fourth son.

- Nilkaṇṭh (Died 7-3-1771 Battle of Motitalāv)
  - Raghunāth Dādā.
  - Śivrāv Subhedar.
- Konher Rāv Rāvsāheb of Kurundvāḍ.
  - Gaṇpatrāv Bāpu.

5. Lineage of Govindpant Nānā (Died, March 1771) Satyabhāmā

- Gopāḷrāv Dādā (died 17-1-1771)
- Vāmanrāv Bābā
- Pāṇḍuraṅg Tātyā
  - Harirāv
  - Cintāmaṇrav Sāṅglī State.
  - Viṭṭhalrāv.
  - Nārāyaṇrāv
    - Gaṅgādhar Bāl
- Gaṅgādhar Bāḷāsāheb of Miraj.

6. Lineage of Bhāskar Hari

- Vināyakrāv
- Dhoṇḍopant Viṭṭhalpant Bābā (Died 21-3-1795—Battle of Kharda).

[1] G. S. Sardesai, *Genealogies of Historic Families* (Marathi), p. 75.

* Corrected as per *New History of the Marathas*, Vol. III, p. 345.

CHAPTER 3 — THE PEOPLE

CHAPTER 3.

The People.

INTRODUCTION.

IN THIS CHAPTER IT IS PROPOSED TO DESCRIBE THE SOCIAL AND CULTURAL LIFE of the people in the district as is reflected in the customs and traditions they follow, the language they speak, the religious observances they adopt, the games they play and the amusements with which they entertain themselves in short, the whole complex of their lives as members of a social organization. These social and cultural aspects cannot be treated apart from the economic ways of the society because economic stability is the very foundation of an enriched social life and still their separate treatment is necessary because it is ultimately the forms of social and cultural organization that determine the structure of society. In dealing with the various aspects of the social and cultural life of the people in the district more reliance is placed upon the factual present rather than the indefinable past. With the changing patterns of socio-economic organization it has now become necessary to deal with people as members of a community rather than those of an isolated group. The social life of the people could best be understood in perspective and it is in this light that the cultural life of the people is described in what follows.

POPULATION.

According to 1961 Census the population of Sāṅglī district is 12,30,716 or 371 per suqare mile. Of this 6,28,754 are males and 6,01,962 are females. Hindūs form the largest section representing 84.49 per cent of the total population. Muslims come next, representing 6.17 per cent of the population. Buddhists, Jains, Christians and others follow in that order representing 4.57, 3.93 and 0.82 per cent of the total population. Whereas Hindus and Buddhists are more numerous in rural areas than in urban areas, Muslims and Christians are more numerous in urban areas. Persons belonging to Scheduled Castes number 1,02,080 (or 8.29 per cent of the total population), of whom 52,062 are males and 50,018 are females. Of these 87.57 per cent people are the residents of the rural areas. The Scheduled Tribes are also found in the rural areas. They account only for a small percentage (0.05) of the district population.

Livelihood Pattern.

Of the total population of 12,30,716 souls in the district, 5,31,478 are workers.* (m. 3,36,707 ; f. 1,94,771) Of these 2,09,477 males and 1,43,241 females work as cultivators, 39,154 males and 33,045

* For the definition of worker—*See* Census of India, Vol. X, 1961, Mahārāṣṭra p. 3.

CHAPTER 3. The People. POPULATION. Livelihood Pattern.

females work as agricultural labourers, 2,564 males and 307 females work in Mining, Quarrying, Live-stock, Forestry, Fishing. Hunting, Plantations, Orchards, and allied activities, 21,713 males and 10,001 females are engaged in household industry, 14,077 males and 843 females in manufacturing, 4,047 males and 425 females in construction, 13,768 males and 1,698 females in Trade and Transport, 5,759 males and 94 females in Transport, Storage and Communications and 26,148 males and 5,117 females in other services. Of the non-workers 2,92,047 are males and 4,07,191 are females.

The proportion of cultivators to the total population in the district is very high—66.37 per cent—against that for the whole State which stands at 46.11 per cent. The same for agricultural labourers is 13.58 as against the State proportion of 23.80 per cent. The ratio between cultivators and agricultural labourers is 5:1. In 1951 cultivators and agricultural labourers (including earning dependents), constituted 71.55 per cent and 7.73 per cent of the total workers, respectively. For 1961, the corresponding figures are 66.37 per cent and 13.58 per cent. The increase in the proportion of agricultural labourers in 1961 over that of 1951 may be partly due to the increase in the area under irrigation and sugarcane in the decade. It is also likely that of the total number of persons engaged both as cultivators and agricultural labourers in 1961, more persons might have returned agricultural labour as their principal occupation than in 1951*.

Migration.

According to the 1961 Census, out of the total population of 12,30,716 (m. 6,28,754; f. 6,01,962) 7,64,375 person (m. 4,75,497; f. 2,88,878) or 62.16 per cent were born at the places of enumeration, 3,00,606 (m. 92,048; f. 2,08,558) or 24.45 per cent were born elsewhere in the district and the rest *i.e.*, 1,64,721 (m. 60,795; f. 1,03,926) or 13.39 per cent were born outside the district but were enumerated within the district while the census was being taken. The following table gives the proportion of population enumerated at places of birth and other places to the total population as per the 1961 Census:—

TABLE No. 1

PROPORTION OF POPULATION AT PLACES OF BIRTH, SANGLI

(1)	Total population (2)	Place of Enumeration (3)	Elsewhere in the district (4)	Outside the district but in Mahārāṣtra (5)	Outside Mahārāṣtra (6)
Persons	12,30,716	7,64,375	3,00,606	1,12,320	52,401
Males	6,28,754	4,75,497	92,048	38,782	22,013
Females	6,01,162	2,88,878	2,08,558	73,538	30,388
Percentage to total Population—					
Persons	100·00	62·16	24·45	9·13	4·26
Males	100·00	75·68	14·65	6·17	3·50
Females	100·00	48·04	34·68	12·23	5·05

* Census Handbook, Sangli, 1961.

Of those born outside Sāṅglī district, 9.13 per cent were born in Mahārāṣṭra and 4.26 per cent out of Mahārāṣṭra.

The table indicates that the proportion of females born at places of enumeration is only 48.04 per cent against 75.68 per cent that of males to total population. The difference is due to women married at places other than their places of birth. Two-thirds of this movement of females on marriage appears to be within the district and one-third outside the district. As the district is on the State boundary the volume of inter-State migration of females is as much as 5.05 per cent.

The census data according to the sex-ratios in urban and rural areas of the district indicate that the rural sex-ratio is higher than urban sex-ratio except in the age-groups 55—59 and 60 and over. These differences are more pronounced in adult age-groups among which the age-group 20—24 has the highest ratio. The rural sex-ratio is very high in this age-group compared to the corresponding ratio for urban areas. The high sex-ratios for age-groups 20—24 and 25—29 in urban, rural and total population is due to the movement of males in these age-groups outside the district in search of employment and/or for higher education. The balance in sex-ratios is attained in the old age-group, due partly to the return of the migrants to their usual places of residence after retirement from jobs and services.

Data on the percentage distribution of male population by economic activity shows that the percentage of workers in cultivation is higher for those born at the place of enumeration. The percentage of agricultural labourers is higher among the people born outside. It was found that the migrants were engaged more in non-agricultural sectors.

Seasonal Out-Migration.

Besides the migration for more or less long periods, there is also a net seasonal out-migration from the district. Small land-holders and agricultural labourers move temporarily to the nearby sugarcane growing areas in Kolhāpūr and Śolāpūr districts. This seasonal out-migration is mainly from Khānāpūr and Wālvā talukas. Some movement also takes place within the district and mainly to Miraj taluka. The net seasonal out-migration may be estimated between 15 and 20 thousands. The movement is mostly of males as could be seen from the following table in which differences in the sex-ratios for the district and its talukas for the houseless population as on 1st October, 1960 and census population as on 1st March, 1961, are given:—

TABLE No. 2

HOUSELESS POPULATION IN SANGLI DISTRICT

Name of the Area (1)	1st October 1960 (2)	*1st March 1961 (3)
Sāṅgli District—		
Total	953	927
Rural	960	966
Urban	914	912

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Seasonal Out-Migration.

TABLE No. 2—*contd.*

Name of the area	1st October 1960	*1st March 1961
(1)	(2)	(3)
Khānāpūr Taluka	955	1,009
Śirāḷā Mahal	1,031	1,038
Wāḷwā Taluka	936	949
Tāsgāṅv Taluka	955	958
Jath Taluka	935	939
Miraj Taluka	926	920

* From District Census Handbook, Sangli, 1961, p. 53.

Urban and Rural Population.

Sāṅgli district is predominantly rural in character. In 1961 there were six towns and 526 villages in the district. Towns, as defined by 1961 Census, are places which either have a municipality or cantonment or have been treated as towns because they have (a) a population of over 5,000; and (b) 75 per cent or more of male workers engaged in non-agricultural occupations. This definition obviously declassifies as many as 21 towns from the 1951 list of towns and shows a drop of 32.93 per cent in urban population over the 1951 Census. There is, however, a net growth in urban population of the district to the extent of 102.52 per cent over that of 1901.

The two most important towns in the district are Sāṅglī and Miraj, each having a population of 73,838 and 53,345, respectively in 1961. The rest of the towns arranged in the order of their population are: Uraṇ-Islāmpūr 20,817; Tāsgāṅv 16,649; Aṭṣā 14,390; and Viṭā 13,391. The number of towns, the rate of decade variation in the urban population and the percentage of urban population to total population at each census since 1901 for the district are as follows:—

TABLE No. 3

VARIATION IN URBAN POPULATION (1901 TO 1961) IN SANGLI DISTRICT

Year	No. of Towns	Rate of variation in Urban population	Percentage of Urban population to total population
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1901	11	..	14·74
1911	12	—6·40	14·52
1921	11	+3·67	15·46
1931	12	+28·24	16·71
1941	12	+17·58	17·10
1951	27	+106·39	28·74
1961	6	—32·93	15·64

POPULATION. Urban and Rural Population.

The rural areas comprising 526 villages occupy 3,206.2 square miles (8360.67 km^2) of the district with a population of 28,391,157. Since 1901 they show considerable variation in population, the rates of variation never following a uniform trend as could be seen from the table given below. The urban population of the district had grown faster in proportion to the total during the period from 1901 to 1961, against the rural population which increased at a slower rate than the increase in the total population. The percentage of rural population has, therefore, gradually decreased over the period except for 1961 when it shows a steep rise. This is due to the declassification of towns as already explained above.

TABLE No. 4

VARIATION IN RURAL POPULATION (1901 TO 1961)
SANGLI DISTRICT

Year	Rate of variation in Rural Population	Percentage of Rural Population to total population
(1)	(2)	(3)
1901	..	85·26
1911	—4·72	85·48
1921	—3·74	84·54
1931	+16·91	83·29
1941	+14·36	82·90
1951	+5·59	71·26
1961	+45·93	84·36

Displaced Persons.

After the Partition of India in 1947 a number of persons left Pakistan and migrated into the different parts of India with a view to settling there. The following tabular statements give the population statistics regarding, (1) Displaced Persons, (2) Area, Houses and Population, (3) Civil Condition by Age, (4) Language, (5) Religion, (6) Population by Taluka, (7) Urban Area, Houses, and Inmates, and (8) Rural Area, Houses and Inmates.

TABLE No. 5

DISPLACED PERSONS

Year	—		Urban Areas of						Rural Areas of				Total			
	Miraj, Jath and Tāsgāṅv		Khānāpūr and Wāḷwā		Khānāpūr		Jath and Tāsgāṅv		Miraj		Wāḷwā and Śirāḷā		Urban		Rural	
(1)	(2) M.	(3) F.	(4) M.	(5) F.	(6) M.	(7) F.	(8) M.	(9) F.	(10) M.	(11) F.	(12) M.	(13) F.	(14) M.	(15) F.	(16) M.	(17) F.
1947.. ..	.. 69+2*	57	..	..	..	..	1	..	7	..	..	..	71	57	8	..
1948.. ..	.. 35+6*	20	2	..	..	..	..	..	11	6	5	1	41	20	16	7
1949.. ..	.. 6	4	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	6	4	..	..
1950.. ..	.. 1*	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..
1951.. ..	.. 1	..	..	..	..	..	.	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..

* Persons from East Pakistan.

TABLE No. 6

AREA, HOUSES AND POPULATION (1951 AND 1961)

DISTRICT SANGLI

Census years	Area in Sq. miles	Towns	Villages	Occupied Houses		Population			
				Urban	Rural	Urban		Rural	
						Males	Females	Males	Females
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
1951	3,434	27	502	40,751	117,875	147,089	139,841	361,151	352,060
1961	3,317·1	6	526*	36,741	167,032	100,653	91,777	528,101	510,185

*Inhabited villages.

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TABLE No. 7

CIVIL CONDITIONS BY AGE PERIODS (ALL COMMUNITIES) SANGLI, 1961

Age periods	Total Population		Married		Unmarried		Widowed	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
0—9	193,200	184,786	..	..	193,200	184,786	..	..
10—14	80,972	71,517	1,110	15,009	79,802	56,324	16	96
15—19	54,597	47,616	4,913	38,860	49.605	7,878	33	403
20—24	49,583	49,918	20,471	46,113	24,764	2,102	187	1,043
25—29	45,786	48,575	38,126	44,028	6,878	1,813	454	2,047
30—34	37,619	39,493	35,363	35,040	1,473	686	512	3,199
35—39	33,605	33,557	31,880	28,553	775	120	679	4,462
40—44	30,027	29,421	28,626	22,253	548	120	1,179	6,704
45—49	27,894	24,618	25,626	16,452	407	60	1,659	7,902
50—54	23,232	20,556	20,539	10,534	327	59	2,213	9,813
55—59	17,208	14,050	14,699	5,647	222	38	2,211	8,257
60—64	16,359	15,789	13,010	3,665	213	45	3,081	12,010
65—69	8,632	8,083	6,557	1,477	111	26	1,924	6,558
70+	13,721	13,845	8,959	1,195	113	52	4,599	12,583
Age not stated	319	138	25	15	287	114	5	4

TABLE No. 8

LANGUAGE (MOTHER-TONGUE), SANGLI DISTRICT

Language	1951		1961	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Bengali	21	4	15	4
Gujarātī	2,863	2,278	3,086	2,566
Hindi	618	338	1,149	922
Kacchī	2	79	312	326
Kannaḍa	47,574	54,012	56,057	52,379
Konkaṇī	84	55	192	185
Malyāḷam	100	39	221	94
Marāṭhī	423,105	402,963	521,824	502,595
Nepālī	21	..	35	5
Punjābī	55	58	61	53
Rājasthānī	870	603	106	27
Sindhī	76	22	700	563
Tāmīḷ	544	438	316	259
Telugū	4,459	4,590	5,023	4,603
Tule	54	17	..	..
Urdu	27,608	26,224	36,887	34,885
Other Indian Languages—				
Arabic	12	2	42	18
Burmese	..	..	1	..
Hebrew	..	..	2	..
Pashto	..	..	..	..
English	70	80	91	80
Persian	10	24	..	..
Portuguese	22	13	4	3

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TABLE No. 9

POPULATION BY RELIGION OF SANGLI DISTRICT, 1961

Religion	1951		1961	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Hindūs	454,539	443,169	531,559	508,218
Śikhs	72	46	81	62
Jains	20,008	18,399	25,129	23,244
Buddhists	..	..	27,864	28,439
Zoroastrians	13	7	..	..
Muslims	29,886	27,202	39,351	36,637
Christians	3,705	3,078	4,740	5,347
Jews..	17	..	..	..
Others	..	..	30	6
Religion not stated	..	..	..	9
Total ..	508,240	491,901	628,754	601,962

TABLE No. 10

POPULATION BY TALUKA FROM 1951 TO 1961

Name of the Taluka or Peta	1951		1961	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Jath	55,675	52,592	71,676	67,307
Khānāpūr	91,163	92,278	110,769	111,794
Miraj	146,910	138,706	194,318	178,821
Śirāḷā	39,569	39,847	44,079	45,766
Tāsgāṅv	85,900	83,425	103,555	99,203
Wālwā	89,023	85,050	104,357	99,071
Total ..	508,240	491,898	628,754	601,962

TABLE No. 11

URBAN AREA, HOUSES AND INMATES, DISTRICT SANGLI

Name of Town	Area of Town	No. of Houses	No. of House-holds	Total No. of persons enumerated (including inmates, intitutions and houseless persons)			No. of inmates of institutions and houseless persons	
				Persons	Males	Females	Males	Females
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Vita (M)	21·34	2,556	2,653	13,391	7,057	6,334	..	..
Uran-Islampur (M)	12·87	3,898	3,934	20,817	10,802	10,015	..	..
Aṣṭā (M)	32·51	2,633	2,665	14,390	7,403	6,987	..	..
Tasgāon (M)	16·76	3,160	3,313	16,649	8,668	7,981	..	..
Sāṅglī (M)	11·02	14,742	14,972	78,838	39,323	34,515	..	..
Miraj (M)	16·37	9,752	9,929	53,345	27,400	25,945	..	..
Urban Area (Talukawise)								
Tāsgāṅv	16·8	3,160	3,313	16,649	8,663	7,981	..	..
Wālwā	45·4	6,531	6,599	35,207	18,205	17,002	..	..
Khānāpūr	21·3	2,550	2,653	13,391	7,057	6,334	..	..
Miraj	27·4	24,494	24,901	127,183	66,723	60,460	..	..
Total ..	110·9	36,741	37,466	192,430	100,653	91,777	..	..

TABLE No. 12

RURAL AREA, HOUSES AND INMATES, 1961, SANGLI DISTRICT

Names of Taluka or Mahal	Area of (in sq. miles)	No. of houses	No. of house-holds	Total No. of persons (including inmates of institutions and houseless persons)		
				Persons	Males	Females
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Khānāpūr Taluka	818·1 (2118·8 km²)	35,406	37,741	209,172	103,712	105,460
Śirāḷā Mahal	246·0 (637·1 km²)	16,003	17,207	89,845	44,079	45,766
Wāḷwā Taluka	255·0 (660·5 km²)	26,572	29,871	168,221	86,152	82,069
Tāsgāṅv Taluka	416·6 (1079·1 km²)	27,683	32,648	186,109	94,887	91,222
Jath Taluka	873·7 (2262·9 km²)	22,242	24,612	138,983	71,676	67,307
Miraj Taluka	596·8 (1545·8 km²)	39,126	43,177	245,956	127,595	118,361
Total ..	3,206·2	167,032	1,855,256	1,038,286	528,101	510,185

LANGUAGE.

Marāṭhī is the principal language and is the mother-tongue of more than 83 per cent of the population in the district. In rural areas Marāṭhī speakers account for 85 per cent of the population. They constitute 72.4 per cent of the population in urban areas. The Marāṭhī spoken by the peasantry and artisan classes in various talukas differs from place to place in accent and intonation but the written language used by all Marāṭhī speaking people is uniform. The script as in other places is Devanāgarī. The *modī* script which was taught in primary schools formerly is no longer in use except for keeping accounts by the merchants. Kannaḍa language comes next and accounts for 8.8 per cent of the total population in the district. Urdū has the third largest number of speakers and accounts for 5.8 per cent of the total population of the district. It is generally used by the Muslim population, with a mixture of Marāṭhī. The speakers of all other languages are concentrated in urban areas. Telugu is an exception and its speakers are fairly distributed over rural and urban areas. They include Waḍars—stone quarry workers, whose mother-tongue Waḍārī is akin to Telugu.

The comparative position of the different languages spoken in the district in 1961 shows a variation from that in 1951. The proportion of Marāṭhī speakers increased from 82.50 to 82.84, that of Kannaḍa speakers decreased by 1.35 per cent and in case of Urdu increased from 5.38 per cent to 5.83 per cent.

Among foreign languages English holds an important place. It is understood and used by a majority from the educated class. It is still taught as a compulsory language in secondary and high schools and also in colleges. As a medium of instruction, it is fast being replaced by Marāṭhī everywhere except in Science Colleges. However, the circulation of English newspapers in towns like Sāṅglī, Miraj, Mādhavnagar and Kirloskarvāḍī reveals its place in the diurnal affairs of the people.

HINDUS.

The census of 1961 indicates that 10,39,777 out of 12,30,716 of the population of the district are Hindūs. The only other important group is that of Muslims who number a little over 75,000. The other important group is that of Jains who are 48,373. Hindūs are not enumerated castewise in the census of late but caste has not ceased to exist though customs and considerations associated with this or that caste have become loose and rather inconsequential except when the problem of marriage arises. Sub-castes are showing a tendency to merge in a larger caste with similar characteristics. This tendency may eventually lead to abolition of caste, but how long after is difficult to say. It is only intercaste marriages on a large scale that can lead to the end of the caste-system but such marriages are by no means very frequent even now. Castes have generally conformed to occupational divisions. It is craft or occupation followed by some families for generations together that have given those families the name of a particular caste among Hindus. Modern life conditions and education have released forces which enable the coming together of people of various castes and sub-castes on a common

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cultural plane and, therefore, at not a very distant date, caste system may break down completely. Even now relations between the various castes and sub-castes are not unfriendly in normal dealings. Under the instigation of ambitious political people, caste feelings and pride are artificially awakened now and then and hostile action and demonstration are noticeable. Generally, the people get on well together, following their usual avocations peacefully and meeting one another's needs. Social intercourse is restricted only where inter-marrying comes in. Inter-dining is becoming common among members of various castes and sub-castes and even followers of different religions, particularly in urban areas. In rural areas also partaking of *pānsupārī* and smokes and of late even taking tea and snacks together are by no means rare. The means of transport and communication have also accelerated this process. Even untouchability, which was very rigorously observed once upon a time, is disappearing both because it has been done away with by law and social reformers have carried on propaganda for decades against it as an inhuman practice. Once upon a time untouchability meant even unapproachability and unseeability, if such expressions might be used. Some untouchable communities, especially Mahārs have embraced Buddhism under the guidance of the late Dr. B. R. Ambedkar and they call themselves nav-Buddhas.

Occupational groups in the Hindu religion.

Among Hindūs, Brāhmaṇs seem to be slightly in larger numbers and in a better position in Sāṅglī district chiefly because of the Patwardhan Rājās of Sāṅglī and the State authorities of Miraj, Budhagāṅv and Aundh. Even then Brāhmaṇs may not be more than seven per cent of the total Hindū population of the district. The Marāṭhās and Kuṇbīs form the biggest group. They belong to the same stock but Marāṭhas are generally better placed in social status and Kuṇbīs are usually tillers of land. Some Marāṭhā families claim their origin to Rajpūt families from north India, but this is difficult to trace genealogically. The Marāṭhās usually prefer military or police service, and of late, any Government employment to agricultural pursuits. Since sugarcane plantation and sugar factories came into vogue, they are taking to this cash crop and sugar manufacture. Marāṭhās are usually of a fairer complexion and have refined manners but they cannot be distinguished from Kuṇbīs on that account. Now-a-days all communities which are non-Brāhmaṇ form under the absorbing banner Marāṭhās and similar communities. Due to the growth of the co-operative movement in the field of sugar and oil production among the Marāṭhās, they now generally wear a prosperous look.

Several other groups among Hindūs still follow, at least partially and periodically their time-honoured and traditional occupations, besides such agriculture as they can manage. Such groups are the Mālīs or gardeners, Beldārs or quarrymen, Burūḍs or bamboomakers, Ghisāḍīs or tinkers, Kāsārs or bangle-sellers, Koṣṭīs or weavers, Kumbhārs or potters, Lohārs or black-

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smiths, Loṇārīs or cement-makers, Otārīs or casters, Pātharvaṭs or stone-dressers, Paṭavekars or tassel-makers, Raṅgārīs or dyers, Sonārs or goldsmiths, Sutārs or carpenters, Telīs or oilmen, Vaḍars or earth diggers, Ghaḍsis or musicians, Guravs or temple-tenders, Nhāvīs or barbers, Pariṭs or washermen, Dhangars or shepherds, Gavḷīs or milkmen, Bhoīs, who once used to be palanquin-carriers, Koḷīs or ferrymen, and Pardeśīs who hailed originally from North India. All these and similar other groups are classed as communities similar to Marāṭhās. People belonging to groups such as Kaikāḍīs, Ramośīs and Vanjārīs have practically lost their traditional occupations and are being absorbed among Kuṇbīs or agricultural workers. Formerly the Kaikāḍīs were basket-makers, the Rāmośīs were guards or sentinels and Vanjārīs were caravan drivers with bullocks in their possession as cargo-carriers.

Scheduled Castes.

The scheduled castes are very backward, needing special help for uplift in society. Seats have been reserved for them in village panchayats, municipalities, Zilla Parishad, the State legislature and the Parliament. Special educational facilities are also given to them. Belonging to the scheduled castes in Sāṅglī district are Bhaṅgīs or nightsoil men, Māṅgs, Mahārs and Camārs. The Māṅgs were regarded as serviceable and trustworthy village watchmen as also scavengers, hangmen, musicians and songsters. Among the Mahārs there are many sub-castes all of whom were petty village servants of the State. Camārs are shoe-makers.

Itinerant Castes.

The Gondhaḷīs are a tribe of dancers and worshippers of Ambābāī of Kolhāpūr. Their services are usually requisitioned in Hindū households after some event of rejoicing like a wedding or the birth of a son, for performing a *Gondhaḷ* or a special worship of Ambābāī. Formerly, they functioned as Bhaṭs or bands who composed and recited crude but vigorous versical compositions in eulogy of their patrons or their ancestors who were usually princely people and Sardārs. These compositions were called *powāḍās*. A special peculiarity of the dress of the Gondhaḷīs is their long, shabby, greasy coats and a necklace of *cowrie* shells. Otherwise they look like the rural Kuṇbīs.

The Kolhāṭīs or tumblers constitute a strange set of people who wander from place to place all the year round. They are a light, active, intelligent people with fair skins, dark eyes and short black hair. They speak a mixture of Marāṭhī, Gujarātī and Hindustānī. They generally move in gangs of about 20, carrying small mat huts and cots on the backs of donkeys or ponies or their own heads. Both men and women as also children are acrobats among them. All the same, they hold the cow as a sacred animal, an index of their being Hindū. Tirmāḷis or Nandkars who take decorated bullocks that are trained to react to particular words and sounds usually go round villages and collect their grain cess from the peasants at harvesting time. They

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are becoming scarcer and scarcer. They originally came from Andhra Prades and they have kept up the same corrupt Telugu still. Vaidūs who also are believed to have come from Andhra Prades have become practically extinct.

Religion.

All the castes and sub-castes among Hindūs are generally peaceful people, follow their traditions loyally and believe that whatever was ordained by time-honoured customs and practices was good enough for them. They are God-fearing and tolerant. They hold that there is only one source responsible for this creation and that source must be worshipped in any of its manifestations according to individual taste and family tradition. This way of life and behaviour does not make for any pursuit of strife or competition. All are taught to remain content with what one was endowed by the Almighty and to this teaching it is considered moral to conform. Generations have lived for centuries in this belief. But western education with its emphasis on the teaching of Science in its various branches has generated a spirit of questioning and an emphasis on scientific outlook. Modern concepts about social equality and justice and individual freedom are gripping the mind of the modern generation. *Swaraj* has only accelerated this process. In all spheres of life, static ways are yielding place to dynamic ways and as a result, a transformation of society is in progress. Effects of this transformation are noticeable in the changes that the traditional customs of Hindūs are undergoing.

Samskaras.

The majority of Hindū customs and traditions consist of rituals related to various religious practices known as *Samskāras* or sacraments. In theory, they are purifying rites, conducted under the direction of Brāhmaṇ priesthood, according to orthodox practice. Regarding the exact number of these *Samskāras*, the writers of *smṛtis* are not agreed. According to some of these lawgivers, 16 of these *Samskāras* are compulsory and 24 are optional. *Nitya* and *Naimittika* are the Sanskṛt words used to convey this meaning. Of late even these sixteen have now been reduced to less than half a dozen in most of the Hindū communities including Brāhmaṇs who abided by them some decades ago. These rituals are associated with birth, death, marriage chiefly and also with pregnancy and school-going age. Thread-girding or Upanayana is peculiar only to the twice-born, *i.e.*, the *dwijas* now consisting of all divisions among Brāhmaṇs and some Marāṭhā families who claim to be Kṣatrīya and Vaiśyas. Garbhādhāna, signalising the child-bearing capacity of the girl-wife used to be performed once separately after she came of age with much fan-fare and tom-tom, but now forms part of the marriage ceremony. The marriage age of girls has now been about 20 and their child-bearing capacity is taken for granted.

Marriage and Morals.

The most important and far-reaching in its effects on every individual Hindū, men or women, is the marital rite. Till late this was observed most ceremoniously, but under the stress of modern thought, economic necessity and reformist ideas, even

this rite has been reduced to the minimum by the Dharma Śāstra Nirṇaya Maṇḍal. Even well-to-do and conservative Hindūs now resort to what has come to be designated as the Vedic Marital ritual, which retains the essentials of the ceremony and drops a number of non-essentials which have been associated with marriage by customs. As a matter of fact even what prevailed before was Vedic as distinguished from the registered marriage system under which parties to the marriage could belong to different religions and still join in wedlock as man and wife. The four-day wedding ceremonies, interspersed with a number of dinner parties thrown by the people of both the bride and bridegroom have become a matter of the past and the ritual has become quite brief with a reception to friends and relatives, but the religious requirements like Saptapadī, Kanyādāna, Vivāha-homa being preserved intact in keeping with the injunction of the *śāstras* and the *smṛtīs*. The Brāhmaṇs themselves have led the way in bringing about this reform. Other Hindū communities have willingly and conveniently followed their lead.

Marriage is among the most sacred and significant of obligations according to Hindū religion, ethics and philosophy to which human life is subject. According to the Hindū view, marriage is not a contract but a sacrament which is indissoluble. By usage only members of the same caste or sub-caste are eligible for marriage subject to certain other conditions like agreement as regards *gotra* and astrological suitability. Marriages could take place only in certain months of the year, the rainy season being totally excluded. A number of customs and practices, wholly unessential from the religious view-point, have also grown around the marriage event, some of which even extend to a whole year. Many outdated non-essentials, however, now tend to disappear in this age of reason, education and a rational outlook on life. Several of these were even stupid and frivolous which grew around child marriages which the elders considered as occasions for revelry, rejoicing and show of pomp. Public opinion has gradually undergone an unmistakable change. Popular opinion has found expression in the legislation of the representative and democratic bodies that came in the wake of awakening under the British rule and more particularly since the attainment of political independence by the country. Thus, child marriage has been abolished altogether by law. The justice and the desirability of the contractual concept even in the holy wedlock has been recognised and divorce under certain specified conditions is now permissible. Freedom to marry beyond one's caste and sub-caste and even creed, has been conceded and the gotra barrier too has been legally done away with. Marriages between members of sub-castes have become common enough. Even those between members of different castes and creeds have also ceased to be sensational though not of frequent occurrence there is no longer social ostracism and criticism of a severe character of such marital unions. In urban areas particularly, they do not even rouse the idle curiosity and spicy comment they once did.

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The marriage customs of the so-called higher and lower castes among Hindūs do not differ in important details. Only the ritual is conducted among the former according to Vedic *mantras* and among the latter according to Purāṇik *mantras*. Polyandry does not exit in Mahārāṣṭra anywhere. Polygamy was current enough and cases may be found even today in this district in which a man has taken even two or three wives though polygamy has now been legally prohibited. By convention, rules of endogamy prohibit marriages outside a caste or a sub-caste; rules of exogamy prohibit marriages between *sagotras, sapiṇḍas* and *sapravaras*. Brāhmaṇs claim *gotras* and *pravaras* and by the *gotra* and *pravara*, exogamy though reformed Hindū law no longer requires conformity to this. Marāṭhās claim *kuḷī* or *devak* as well as *gotras* but the chief restrictions are that the bride and groom must not belong to the same *kuḷī* or *devak*. The prohibited degrees of kindred for marriage beyond agnates vary according to the custom of the community concerned. As regards cross-cousin unions, except that of the brother's daughter with the sister's son, which is not only tolerated but even keenly sought among Sāraswat and Deśastha Brāhmaṇs, other types are disallowed. Marriage with a wife's sister is allowed and a brother may also marry his brother's wife's sister, *i.e.*, sisters can become sisters-in-law.

All marriage agreements are conveniently reducible to five types. In *sālaṅkṛt kanyādāna*, the bride's father bedecks her with ornaments and jewellery and bears the expenses incidental to the marriage including even travelling expenses of the groom's party. In *kanyādāna*, the bride's father's expenses are limited to his own side. In *Varapakṣa-Vadhupakṣa* each side bears its own expenses and considers it honourable to exchange suitable gifts and dinner parties according to the means of either. In the *huṇḍā* form, the bride's father pays a heavy *varadakṣṇā* so that the groom is as if were purchased and in the *deja* form, the proposal is made from the groom's side with a price for bride. There may be variations suited to mutual convenience in all these forms in individual cases.

The marriage ceremony as such covers a number of stages. Among the poor and backward communities, it is the father of the groom or some such elderly person on his behalf starts negotiations with the bride's father. In the case of the well-to-do and the advanced people the process is reversed. This is called *māganī*. If there is no initial hitch, it was usual until recently to compare the horoscopes of the bride and the groom particularly among the advanced communities but this stage is resorted to in many cases now-a-days to leave room for a denial or approval if it is considered desirable on second thought. If this stage is passed, there takes place what is called Sākharpuḍā. On a mutually agreed day, the groom's father or an elderly person or relative of similar standing accompanied by some friends goes to the bride's house to present her with a *sāṛī* and bodice cloth and ornaments.

Five *suvāsinis*, *i.e.*, women with their husbands living mark the bride's forehead with *kumkū*, present her a *sāḍī*, a *khaṇ* and ornaments with a packet of sweets. The others are given *pānsupārī* and light eatables and tea. This ceremony is called *sākharpuḍā*. Some days later, the bride's relatives go to the groom's place and present him suitable clothes, a head-dress and a ring. The groom's forehead is marked with a *ṭiḷā*. The *sākharpuḍā* and *ṭiḷā* together constitute what may be called the betrothal. In marriage ceremonies which extended over three or four days in days by gone, these two were primarily repeated and were called *Śevati* and *vaṅgniścaya*. These are followed by *patrikāpūjan* or worshipping of the papers on which the names of the bride and the bridegroom are written by their respective priests with the God Gaṇeśa as witness. All the family deities, local deities and goddesses are also specifically invited to bless the contemplated marriage by placing a few rice grains before the idols. This is often done by a procession of friends and relatives going to various temples.

Although it is now dispensed with in most cases, there used to be a day before the marriage a non-essential symbolic ceremony called *ghāṇā* in the houses of both the bride and bridegroom. A turmeric bulb, some wheat and an areca-nut are tied in a piece of cloth to the handle of a *jāte* (grinding-stones) by married and unwidowed women. They grind some wheat and turmeric by the handmill to the accompaniment of prayer songs to Gaṇeś and Sarasvati. Two wooden pestles are then tied together with a piece of new cloth containing turmeric bulbs, a betel-nut and a little wheat. Some wheat is put into a bamboo-basket and pounded with these pestles. Provisions for the marriage are supposed to be prepared after this ceremony but it is not really observed in practice. The grinding-stone and the pestles used for this ceremony are kept in the same position till all functions in connection with the marriage are over. This is usually done in the early hours of the morning. The next item is that of *haḷad* and *telvaṇ*. A party of *Suvāsinis* from the groom's house goes to the house of the bride to the accompaniment of music, taking with them in a basket turmeric paste, articles of dress, etc. The bride is smeared with oil and this paste and she is given a hot water bath. She is presented with a new green *sāḍī* and *coḷī*. What remains of the turmeric paste and oil is taken to the groom's house. He is rubbed with these and given a similar bath. The bride's father presents him a dress which he puts on when he starts for the bride's house in a procession for the actual marriage ceremony.

On the marriage day, a number of propitiatory rites are gone through in the camps of the bride and the bridegroom. They are called *maṇḍap pratiṣṭhā* and *Devaka pratiṣṭhā* and include Gaṇapati *pūjana*, *puṇyāhavācana*, *nandiśrāddha* and *grahamakha*. A spot in the marriage-booth is washed with cowdung. *Suvāsinis* decorate it with *rāṅgoḷī* (quartz powder) and arrange three *pāṭs* (low wooden stools) in a line and cover them with

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rich velvet or woollen material. The parents of the bride and bridegroom take bath, put on silk apparel and seat themselves on the *pāṭs* with their faces to the east. Next, because some *saṃskārs* which ought to have been performed on the bride and the groom, but were not, they are made to go through a *prāyascitta*. The father of the bride or the groom declares solemnly: "I am going to marry my son or daughter named so and so in order to be free from the debt of gods and ancestors and to continue the performance of righteous deeds and to propagate off-spring fit to perform these deeds." In this declaration is contained the essence of marriage as a social and sociological duty. In order that the whole marriage ceremony may pass off without any inauspicious occurrence, prayers in propitiation of Gaṇapati, the family deities, Mṛtyunjaya and the ill-favoured stars of the party are held through priests. These prayers commence before and end after the marriage and are known as *anusṭhāna*. *Gaḍagṇer* or *keḷavaṇ* are felicitations accompanied by dinners offered to the bride or bridegroom by relatives.

There is a performance called *mātṛkapūjana* which is in essence a worship of ancestors. The bride's party arranges a dinner in honour of the groom's party when images of ancestors are brought by the groom and they are worshipped. Among the Marāṭhās families of this district, it is traditional to remember those ancestors who fell on the battle field and seek their blessings. An elderly male member of the family personates this *Vīr* Puruṣa. He is taken to the bank of a river in ceremony. The water deities and he are feted. He is presented with a dress and he holds a sword in his hand. He is brought home and smeared with red powder. At the entrance of the house, rice mixed with curds and coconut are waved near his person. The sword in his hand is then taken and placed near the house-gods. This *Vīr* Puruṣa has then to remain in the house till the marriage ceremony is over.

A formal declaration of the marriage settlement in the presence of friends, relatives and invited guests is held on the eve of the marriage day or even on the same day at the bride's house. It is called *vāṅgniścaya*. The groom's father accompanied by a party of men and women goes ceremoniously to the bride's house. After they are welcomed and seated, the bride dressed in new clothes is seated near her father. The groom's father gives into her hands a coconut, a betel leaf packet and says thrice addressing her father, 'I shall accept your daughter in marriage for my son'. The bride's father says to him, 'Please do', also thrice. All this is recited in Saṇskṛt. Both of them embrace each other and the ceremony is over. When the time for marriage draws near, the groom wears the dress presented to him at the *halad* ceremony by the bride's father. His brow is bedecked with a *bāśiṅg* or marriage coronet. His left cheek is touched with lamp black. He rides a horse or nowadays is seated in a car. Musicians and drum-beaters walk

in front and behind them walk all the men of the party with the bridegroom. Behind the groom is usually his sister holding a *sakundīvā* (lucky lamp) which is laid in a dish and another woman follows her with a metal or earthen pot holding rice, betel-nut and water covered with a mango-branch and coconut set on a heap of rice in a bamboo basket. Other ladies follow. The party halts at the place previously fixed upon for performing *simānta pūjan* or worship at the boundary. On reaching the bride's home one or two *suvāsinīs* pour water on the hoofs of a horse which the bridegroom rides. Another *suvāsinī* pours water on his feet. The bride's father hands him a coconut and leads him by hand to a place called *bahule* or marriage platform. The guests are received all seated in the marriage hall where soft music is kept going. While all this goes on and the auspicious moment is watched by a priest the bride is given a bath, is dressed in a special marriage dress and she is seated before what is known as *Gaurihāra*. She prays there to God Siva and Goddess Pārvatī and Śakti or Indrāṇī, the wife of Indra, head of the celestial World for blessings to herself and her husband to be.

A little before the auspicious moment, the bride's father worships the paper on which the *Muhūrta* has been written. Two small heaps of rice grains are made near the marriage altar by the priest and a cloth with a central cross mark is held between the heaps. The bride and the groom are asked to stand on these heaps, the former facing east and the latter west. Maternal uncles of either stand behind them. The priests stand on either side of the curtain and ask the pair to remember their family gods. The priests recite auspicious verses and fling rice mixed with kumkum on both. This is distributed to the guests also and at the end of each verse and when the word *sāvadhāna* is repeated, this rice is flung over the heads of the pair. When the auspicious moment arrives, the astrologer priest claps his hands. This is a signal for all to start clapping and the musicians to play on their instruments. The priests draw the curtain aside and the bride and the groom garland each other. If the performance of *madhuparka* was not performed before for lack of time, it is performed now. This consists of the father of the bride worshipping the groom by pouring on his hand, a spoonful of honey mixed with curds which is called *madhuparka*. The bridegroom sips it. If the parents have senior sons-in-law or a son-in-law, they are also offered *madhuparka* in order of seniority. The hands of the pair are then joined by the bride's father, a pot of bell metal is held under them by the priest and the bride's mother pours water with some coins in it over their clapsed hands. This completes the *kanyādāna* or giving over the daughter rite. This is considered to be a highly meritorious act on the part of a house-holder because the priest keeps saying *kanyā tārayatu; puṇyam vardhatam*. This means: May the daughter save her father and let his merit grow. The bride's father then presents new clothes, ornaments and other articles to the groom. He puts

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round the neck of the bride a lucky necklace called *mangaḷasūtra* which is made of black glass beads and some gold beads and a locket. Gaṇapati is then worshipped by them and Brāhmaṇs are distributed *dakṣiṇā*. The couple also worship Lakṣmī, Pārvatī and Indrāṇī.

While all these religious rites are in progress, the guests in the hall are given *pānsupārī*, coconuts, sweets, flowers, *attar* and rose-water as witnesses to the wedding. This done, they disperse. *Vivāhahoma* or marriage sacrifice is then performed and *saptapadi, i.e.,* going round the marriage fire seven times on the part of the bride and the bridegroom makes the marriage valid. Another rite called *paṇigrahaṇa* that follows makes it wholly irrevocable. *Kaṅkaṇas* or marriage wristlets are tied to the wrists of the couple and they are shown the *Dhruvatārā* or the Pole Star while they hold each other's hands. This is a symbol of their vow to remain steadfastly loyal to each other.

The concluding social event is the *varāt* or the ceremonial homeward return of the bridegroom with the bride. This is usually done the same night or the next night. In old days when boys and girls were married at a very young age, parents and other elders of the family derived considerable fun by making the newly weds go through a number of funny and frivolous situations. With grown up boys and girls as parties to the marriage this has almost completely disappeared. Yet, even now, they are made to sit to dinner in the some plate and feed each other. After *varāt,* one more socially significant ceremony called *sunmukhdarśan,* is held. It consists of a cordial welcome to the daughter-in-law by the mother-in-law. Sugar is put in her mouth by the mother-in-law and other elderly women and new clothes and ornaments are given to her. The last religious ceremony is *devakothāpana* or unshrining of the *devak* in the same way as it was installed. When this is over Brāhmaṇs and priests are rewarded for their services. In this district, the custom among the *Marāṭhās* and similar communities is to treat the guests with a sweet feast during the marriage period, and another feast afterwards. It consists of meat, mutton and fowl.

Since the Second World War, conditions of life have enormously changed. The marriage age of boys has considerably risen. The old elaborate, leisurely rituals, whether religious or social, connected with an event like the marriage has no place in these altered circumstances. So it has been rationalised and abridged. Even a reformist body like the Dharma Nirṇaya Maṇḍaḷ has helped the process. Collective marriages have also been introduced among the poorer classes in the interest of economy. *Upanayana* is still in vogue, though the *samskāra* as such is only nominal. But its retention and coming into vogue of collective *upanayanas* in order to retain that sacrament in certain places serves to show that people still care for the nominal initiation of their sons into the student stage with some religious ceremony. The only other

samskāras that are observed are in connection with birth, death and pregnancy.

The prospect of a baby in the offing for a newly-wed bride is greeted with enthusiasm both by her parents as at her husband's. A woman without a child is regarded as an imperfect and immature woman and is looked as even ominous. No Hindū woman will be happy if within a reasonable period after marriage, she does not become enceinte. When happy omens of a coming child are noticed there is joy in the family and every one desires that the first arrival should be a male child. For this purpose, the sacrament of *pumsavana* was devised while the young wife was in the third or fourth month of pregnancy. But whether because it is really not effective or unnecessary, it has fallen into disuse. The prospective mother's longings, *dohāḷe* as they are called, are fondly noticed and promptly satisfied by the elderly members of the husband's family. If a child is born with some birth-marks or congenital defects, they are ascribed to non-fulfilment of the longings. It is customary for a newly-wed wife to go to her parents for the first confinement. All arrangements including the engagement of a midwife known to the family are made. She looks after the young mother for ten days after delivery.

All rural communities are particular about the fifth or sixth day worship as they are believed to be full of danger to the new born. The belief that convulsive seizures and most other forms of disease are the work of spirits and they can be warded off only by propitiating the Mothers, Fifth and Sixth. The elderly women of the house are particular about keeping a lamp constantly burning in the confinement room and the mother is never left alone during the ten days. On the fifth day of child birth, friends and relatives are asked for a tiffin. In the name of *the pañcavī*, a betel-nut, a sword or a sickle are placed on a *pāṭ* and sandle paste and flowers are offered. The mother bows before the goddess with the child in her arms and prays her to protect the child from evil spirits. On the sixth day a blank sheet of paper and a reed pen and ink are placed on a *pāṭ* and *Saṭvāī* or the Mother Sixth is worshipped as on the previous day and a few friends are feasted.

During the ten days, the mother is considered untouchable and only the midwife touches her. The family observes *suher* for the period as *sutak* is observed in the case of a death. On the 11th day, mother and baby are given a purificatory bath, their clothes are washed and the whole house is cleaned. Male members of the household put on new sacred threads. The midwife is presented with a *lugaḍe,* bodice cloth and some money as her fee. The mother is cleaned from impurity by spraying *Tuḷśī* water over her.

Of late, with the practice of sending expectant mother to maternity and nursing homes, many of the old practices have become obsolete, though some of the rituals may be observed at home. On the 12th day the naming ceremony of the child is

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held. Women friends and relatives are invited for the purpose. They bring presents, the musicians play, the baby is put in the cradle and the christening is gone through. This ceremony is called *bārse*. The lobes of the child's ears are pierced by a gold thread, usually by a goldsmith. If the male child is subject to a vow, his right nostril is also pierced by a gold thread and a gold ring put there. *Cuḍākarma* or first hair cut was also a *saṁskāra* performed after a child was three years old, but has now died out.

Munja.

Upanayana, *vratabandha* and *mauñjībandhana* are the Sanskṛt terms for what is popularly called the *munja* sacrament, intended only for the three *varṇas, viz.*, Brāhmaṇa, Kṣatriya and Vaiśya as ordained by the Smṛtis. Whoever can claim classification in one of these three *varṇas* from among the numerous castes and sub-castes into which Hindū society is divided to-day, can have it performed in the case of their male issues. It is a purificatory right in theory initiating a boy into Brāhmacaryāśrama or studenthood. It has to be performed when a boy is between eight and 12 years of age. But now-a-days, it is even performed in several cases just before the boy's marriage. It is customary to perform this ceremony only in certain months of the year, *viz.*, Māgha, Phālguna, Caitra, Vaiśākha and Jyeṣṭha, with due regard to astrological considerations.

Mauñjībandhana means girding the waist of a boy by a thread made from the *munja* grass. Its religious or cultural significance is now almost wholly lost and it has now became an occasion for a social gathering of friends and relatives. It is more a festive than a serious function. Preparations for it begin a few days before the auspicious day fixed for the occasion. *Maṇḍaps* are erected as in the case of marriage. Invitations are sent far and wide to friends and relatives. A day or two before the ceremony, the boy's parents and family priests visit temples and houses of friends and relatives to extend personal invitations for blessing and attendance at the ceremony. This ceremonial extension of invitations is called *akṣat*.

On the thread ceremony day, the *ghāṇā* is performed as in the case of marriage. Drummers and pipers start playing on their instruments. One of the priests sets up the *ghāṭikāpātra* (water clock) with due ceremony. The usual propitiatory rites are gone through. Gaṇpatī and the *mātṛkas* are worshipped and puṇyāhavācana is performed. It is a prayer offered for the day proving full of blessings. This is the occasion for friends and relatives to offer presents to the boy and his parents. This is followed by the performance of *nandiśrāddha*. Twenty seven areca-nuts, representing joy-bringing guardians are placed in a winnowing fan and worshipped with *kumkum* and flowers. It is then taken in the family godroom. Brāhmaṇs and *suvāsinīs* are fed and given *dakṣiṇā*. Mother and boy are then anointed and bathed together and there is a ceremonial cutting of the boy's hair by a barber who is given a turban, a handkerchief, rice, betel and coconut. But now-a-days hair is not actually cut. The boy is

again bathed and there is a ceremonial tiffin when for the last time, the boy eats from his mother's plate. Boys of his age called *batūs* participate in the tiffin and are given *dakṣiṇā*. The boy is again given bath and made ready for the *upanayana* ceremony.

As the *muhūrta* (auspicious moment) approaches, friends, relatives and all invitees gather together and take their seats in the maṇḍap or the hall. The father sits on a *pāṭ* with his face to the east and the boy stands before him facing west. A curtain is held between them by the priests. The boy's sister stands behind him with a lighted lamp and a coconut in her hands. The priests recite *maṅgalāṣṭakas* (lucky verses) and the guests present cast *akṣatās* (unbroken reddened rice grains) at the boy and the father. At the exact lucky moment, the curtain is withdrawn, guests clap their palms, musicians play on their instruments with gusto and the boy lays his head at the feet of his father who blesses him and seats him on his right thigh. *Pānsupārī, attar-gulāb* and flowers are distributed to all present. It is customary to hand a coconut to each person while departing. The new custom on the part of guests, now-a-days is to make some present to the boy.

The religious ritual begins soon. The boy is seated to the father's right. A *sthaṇḍila* (earthen altar) is traced in front of the father, blades of *darbha* (sacred grass) are spread over it and a sacrificial fire (*homa*) is got ready. The priest daubs a cotton string in oil and turmeric, ties it round the boy's waist and gives him a *laṅgoṭī* to wear. He then rolls a yellow *pañcā* (short waist cloth) round his waist and a white one round his shoulders. Another cotton string daubed with oil and turmeric and a bit of deer skin passed into it is hung on the left shoulder of the boy in the manner of a sacred thread. Offerings of *ajaya* (ghee), sesame and seven kinds of *samidhās* (sacred fuel sticks) are placed in the sacrificial fire. The boy is asked to pass between father and fire, sip three *ācamanas* and repeat texts. Again he passes between fire and father and takes his seat to the right of his father. He then rises, bows to the *ācārya* (preceptor-priest) and requests him to initiation of *brahmacaryāśrama*. His request is granted by handing him over a *yajnopavīta* (sacred thread), of *daṇḍa* of palas (staff) and by giving general instructions about acquiring knowledge. He is taken out of the house to look at the sun and offer him a prayer called *gāyatrī*. After this is performed, the principal sacrifice in which prayers are offered to *Agnī*, Indra (King of gods) and Sūrya (the sun) to bestow their powers on the boy. The last rite of the *upanayana* sacrament is *medhājanana* in which prayer is offered to the Goddess of Mind that She gives the boy, knowledge and intellect. This is done by preparing a small square earthen mound and planting in it a branch of the *paḷas* tree and worshipping it as the Goddess of Mind.

Samāvartana which originally meant return from the preceptor's home after 12 years of studenthood has now become an

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adjunct of *ūpanayana,* coming within a few days of it or in the cities even the next day. The boy discards the *munja, i.e.,* the triple waist-cord of sacred grass and his *laṅgoṭī,* puts on costly clothes, a pair of shoes and takes up an umbrella and pretends to set out on a journey to Kāśī. The priest or the maternal uncle of the boy pretends to dissuade him from his plan by promising him to give his daughter in marriage. He is induced to give up the plan and stay.

After-death Rites.

Hindūs usually cremate their dead. But children who have not cut their teeth are buried when dead. When a person is in his last moments and if he is conscious, he keeps on remembering or repeating God's name. If he is unconscious, other people do it for him. At the point of death, his head is placed on the lap of his son or brother and Gaṅgā water which is usually well preserved in almost every household is put in his mouth with a *Tuḷśī* leaf. It is also customary to put a piece of gold and a pearl in his mouth. When life is extinct, the news is announced to relatives and friends and also communicated to distant places. Nearmost relations try to come for the cremation and if it is a son or a brother that is expected to come, the cremation is even postponed by 24 hours. When relatives and brothers gather, preparations are started for carrying the dead body to the cremation ground. Usually it is a ladderlike bier that is prepared out of bamboos. Two new earthen pots, a large one for water and a small one for fire, *gulāl* (red powder), betel leaves and white cloth about seven and a half feet long and about a yard in breadth are procured. Arrangements for sufficient firewood, cowdung cakes and a few dry *Tuḷsi* planst are made. The dead body is bathed and securely tied in the bamboo bier and veiled with he white cloth keeping only the face bare. The son or the nearest relative goes through ablution. Close friends and kinsmen become the four principal bier carriers and the son leads all the mourners to the cremation ground. He carries the fire pot on a triangular frame fastened to a string. On reaching the cremation spot, a pile of firewood and cowdung cakes is laid. The dead body is kept on it and covered with fuel including the dried *Tuḷśī* plants. With the help of the priest, the son sets fire to the pyre. He goes round the pyre thrice with a water-filled earthen pot and stands at the head of the pyre. Another person breaks a hole in the pot with a small stone and the son beats his mouth with the back of his hand. He then goes away and sits among the other mourners. All of them wait till the skull bursts. The sound is usually heard by all. The stone with which the earthen pot is broken is carefully preserved for further obsequies as a symbol of the dead to which water oblations are given by the dearest and the nearest. The mourners return home. In the evening a lighted lamp is kept burning where the deceased breathed his last. If the deceased is a woman with her husband alive, she is decked with flowers, rubbed with turmeric paste and a *kumkum* mark is placed on her forehead. A handful of rice, a coconut and betel leaves are placed in her lap. The rest of the procedure is the same.

If the deceased belongs to the Brāhmaṇ or Kṣatrīya stock, the after-death rites are observed in the vedic style known as *mantrāgnī*; in the case of others also priests officiate, but it is a simple consignment to fire. On the third day, the son, accompanied by a few friends and relatives visit the cremation ground and from the spot where the dead body was burnt, they collect the ashes and whatever remains of the bones. These are consigned to a stream or river and those who can afford to do so, take the same for consignment to a holy place like Prayāg, where the Gaṅgā, Yamunā and Sarasvatī rivers meet and is, therefore, called *Triveṇī Saṅgam*. On the tenth day, all members of the household take a purificatory bath, and all clothes are washed. The son of the deceased is shaven clean. He bathes himself and *aśma*, the symbolic stone and cowdung and rice oblations are offered to it in the cremation ground. Presents of useful articles and money are made to a Brāhmaṇ in the name of the deceased which once included even clothes, shoes and a cow. But now a days only money is conveniently given. The normal expectation of the son and others is that when the oblations are offered in an open space, crows should come and dispose of them. If this does not happen, the belief is that the deceased desires that those left behind should give him assurance regarding his possible wishes. sometimes all these efforts fail to induce a crow to touch the rice ball oblations, but most often they are not disappointed. After this procedure is gone through, the mourners go back home.

On the eleventh day, all members of the household take *pañcagavya* and sprinkle it all over the house. This is a mixture of cow's milk, curds, ghee, urine and dung. New sacred threads are worn. On the 12th day, a ritual known as *sapiṇḍī śrāddha* is held. By virtue of this ritual, the deceased is gathered to his previous three *pillārs, i.e.,* father, grandfather and great-grandfather. On the 13th day, a *śrāddha* is performed in the name of the dead and friends and kinsmen are asked for a feast. After this, every year, the *śrāddha* is expected to be performed on the death of the deceased.

Once a deceased has been cremated, the *śrāddha* is not observed now-a-days every year in the prescribed way in families who have come under modern influences. Some charity is made in memory of the deceased out of feelings of gratitude. Those who can afford it, award even prizes and scholarships in his name or pay poor students' fees. The time-honoured rites and practices are found inconvenient and cumbersome in the present tempo of life. The spirit of the rites is, however, attempted to be preserved by orthodox people. Taking a dead body in the municipal handcart has also been introduced in various places instead of on a bier on four person's shoulders. Only rarely persons allow their bodies to be given for dissection purposes or certain limbs like eyes for the use of the needy, though medical science has made sufficient advance for their use being philanthropically made. Electric furnaces for consuming dead bodies introduced in Bombay have yet to come to a place like Sāṅglī.

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Hindu Women.

Recent legal enactments have considerably affected the position of Hindū women. Equality of the sexes, in general, has been regarded as guaranteed by the Constitution of the Indian Union and women are not prevented now from participating in any field of civil life of the country. They can, in theory, practise any profession, hold any office and even inherit property in their own right. A Hindū widow could take another husband or divorce among the lower castes of Hindūs by usage but the Hindū law, in theory, puts a ban on widow marriage so far as the higher communities like Brāhmaṇs, Kṣatrīyas and Vaiśyas were concerned. But the Widow Re-marriage Act of 1853 removed this disability, even though, during the last hundred years, widows have not chosen to marry in very large numbers among these three *Varṇas*. The right to divorce was not there at all, because the Hindū marriage, in theory, is indissoluble, but recent legislation in this behalf, has allowed divorce to the Hindū wife or husband for sufficient cause, though the restrictions on securing divorce do not make it easy. There is provision, however, for legal separation on sufficient cause being shown. With the spread of education among women and a desire for self-assertion particularly in the case of those who are economically self-dependant and their having come out of the homes in search of jobs on an equal footing with men, divorce cases have begun to figure in the news from time to time. The natural disabilities to which the women's status is heir, has, however, led to the existence of some kind of traffic in women for ages together with the attendant evil of prostitution. The family planning movement now propagated under the auspices of the State Government itself, has made a success in this district, the consciousness to have only such of a number of children as could be supported well, having spread even among the masses. It is not seriously feared that the preventive measures will be misused on a scale as should cause alarm. To the evil of prostitution are allied, though in a clandestine way, the evils of drink and gambling, but not widespread in this district. Prohibition has been legally established all over Mahārāṣṭra, though its breaches are found to be rather too many for a reasonable enforcement of that legislation. Gambling has never caused even the trouble that prohibition has caused, though enlightened public opinion demands that measures for enforcement of the anti-drink and anti-gambling laws need to be more drastic and stringent. It also seeks restrictions on corrupting foreign and Indian motion pictures.

Composed as this district is of the former Sāṅglī, Miraj and Budhgāṅv states and parts of the former Aundh state, certain court manners and etiquettes formed part of the behaviour of daily life , which still persist. This district is proud of its altruistic traditions and good manners. Thus, youngsters will not shout, smoke or spit in the presence of elderly persons. Women will be particular about neatness in dress and careful about covering their bodies well while outdoors. All this is observed more

particularly in the city of Sāṅglī which presents, on the whole, a clean, cultured and hospitable look to any stranger. It has a certain elegance also in its structures.

Home Life.

A large number of rural dwellings have hardly any touch of architectural beauty or interior decoration. Most of them, are simple tile-and-mud constructions made to accommodate the family. Some of them, however, are maintained very clean by frequent application of mud plastering on walls. The floors are applied cowdung almost every week and on days of festivals cowdung mixed with water is sprinkled on them. The floors are then decorated with fine designs of *rangoḷī* drawn with perfect deft. The interiors of the houses are badly ventilated and poorly lighted. Occasionally one comes across photographs of family-members and family-deities hung on the walls or else fixed up at the top of an entrance door. Usually there is no piece of furniture in the house.

As opposed to these, houses in urban areas offer a better sight. They have got better architectural designs and are built with bricks or stones with cement or lime. The house is generally divided into apartments or rooms, the main being kitchen and drawing room. Rooms are mostly rectangular or square in shape with medium height. The drawing room has painted walls. It is often decorated with picture frames, calendars, photos, etc. It is also meagrely furnished with a writing table and a chair and occasionally with an iron cot.

In some of the decent localities of Sāṅglī and Miraj towns one comes across modern type of bungalows. They are built in beautiful designs quite in keeping with modern architectural tastes. Each house is having one, two or more separate self-contained blocks. The interiors are painted with oil-paints and distempers so intermixed as to bring about an enchanting effect of colour-combination. The doors and windows are bedecked with curtains matching the interior atmosphere. The rooms are well-ventilated with large windows and electric fans and are furnished with sofa-sets, dining and dressing tables, a chest of drawers and a radio. A pair of toy-birds, a dancing idol or a plastic cast of an emorous couple may further add to the interior beauty and decoration. Such bungalows are, however, very few and far between.

Dress.

Sāṅglī district Hindūs dress like the Hindūs elsewhere in Mahārāṣtra. The most common article of apparel for the male is the *dhotar*. But loose *pyjamās* or shorts are fast dethroning the *dhotar* from its time-honoured place. Formerly the male upper garments were *uparṇe, śelā, sadarā, pairaṇ, bārābandī, kuḍtā, kopaṛī, kabjā, aṅgarkhā, śervāṇī* and *ḍagalā*. Now it is a shirt, a bush-shirt or a bush-coat. The head-dress used to be a *pāgoṭe, pagḍī, muṇdāse, rumāl, paṭkā* or *saphā*, according to taste and means in various colours. Now, it is fashionable to go bare-headed. The male ensemble consists of a *dhotar or pyjamā*, a long *sadrā* called Nehru shirt and a Gāndhī cap. In the urban

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areas, pants have become quite fashionable and a shirt or bush-shirt completes the dress. The old footwears have also gone. It is now a chappal, slippers or shoes.

Dress.

A Hindū woman's dress is the full Marāṭhā *sāḍī* or *lugaḍe* of nine yards and a short-sleeved *coḷī* reaching to the waist covering both the back and chest, the ends being tied in front. *Saḍīs* of five or six yards in length have become fashionable for the last twenty years among young ladies in the urban centres and they have now even invaded the villages. They are worn cylindrically over a *parkar* or *ghāgrā*, also called petticoat. The old fashioned *coḷī* is also discarded by them. The use of brassiers, blouses, *polkās* and zumpers has become quite common.

A baby, whether a boy or a girl, is dressed in a cap called *topaḍe* or *kuncī*. For every day use, *aṅgḍīs* and *jhabalīs* are sewn. When the baby grows three or four years old, round or folded caps for the head, *sadarā* or *pairaṇ* for the upper part and *caḍḍī*, *tumān* or *colaṇā* for the lower part are sewn for the use of the boys. Small gowns or *jhagās* and *parkars* are made for the girls. Girls of eight or ten, if they do not keep up putting on frocks, *parkars* and *coḷis*, may start using a miniature *sāḍī* without passing the end over her shoulder like a grown-up woman. Skirts are becoming fashionable among college-going girls for the last few years. Hair styles have altered from time to time. The former buns are seen only among grown up and old women. Allowing braided hair on the back is the fashion of the day.

Ornaments.

There is considerable difference between the ornaments used by the urban and the rural people as also by the rich and the poor. A castewise, traditional difference is also noticeable. Similarly, ornaments for men, women, boys and girls are also different. Ladies in the urban areas prefer light and delicate ornaments set in patterns of gold and precious stones. Rich ladies in villages use gold ornaments, but they are heavy and crude. Ornaments used for the feet are always of silver and among the poor even less costly metals, because only princely and royal families can use gold for the feet according to custom. Poor people wear ornaments made of silver, copper, brass, stone and glass beads. Now-a-days cheaper but showy ornaments are getting into fashion. Use of artificial jewellery and glass beads is becoming common. Enormous increase in the price of gold during the last fifty years is responsible for this.

Men have almost given up using any decorative articles now-a-days, though a *sāvūkār* or a *sarāf* may still be met with who wears a pearl earring called *bhīkbāḷī*, a gold wristlet as *pooī* and a gold necklace called goph or *kanthā*. A chain of gold or silver round the waist was also fashionable once upon a time even though it could not be sported. A young man taking fancy for a thin gold chain with a locket round his neck is not quite rare. Persons wearing gold rings called *aṅgaṭhīs* studded with pearls or precious stones may be seen and those among

them who use *pavitraks* profess that they do so on religious grounds. Buttons, links, studs, collar-pins, tie-pins, wrist-watches of precious metals and set with precious stones are used by the rich. Silver *kaḍe* and *kargoṭā* are used by well-to-do villagers and agriculturists.

Fashions in female ornaments have undergone a complete transformation during the last fifty years. Heavy gold ornaments on all limbs are now not popular. Head ornaments, worn in the hair, have almost gone out of fashion. But they used to be found in conservative households till lately ; they were *mūd, agraphūl, rakhḍī, ketki-kevḍā, gulābāce phūl, bindī-bijorā candra-sūrya, goṅḍe-phūl* etc. Ear-ornaments like *caukaḍī* and kudī of pearls set in gold are still in vogue. Earrings of various types are now becoming fashionable. Among the neck-ornaments, *maṅgaḷasūtra* is the important which must always be worn by a married woman with her husband alive. It is now-a-days stringed together by different patterns of gold chains. Necklaces known as *candrahāra, caplāhāra, jondhaḷīpota, tāndaḷīpota, bakuḷīhāra, puṣpahāra, mohanmāḷā, putaḷyācī māḷa, bormāḷa, Kolhāpurī sāj, ekdāṇī, sarī* and *vajraṭīkā*, all of gold and *peṭya, pota, lapphā, tanmaṇī* and *pende*, made of pearls are in current use. Gold bangles of numerous patterns and *paṭlyā* known as *toḍicyā, puraṇācyā, jāḷicyā, pailūcyā, phaśyācyā* and *minyācyā* all made of gold are still current but gradually falling into disuse. Costlier and heavier are *toḍe* of various patterns, bangles studded with pearls, diamonds and precious stones are also in vogue but only in rich families. Armlets or *vākī* of the types known as *rudragāṭh, tuḷabandī, hatricyā* and *moḍvākī* are still in wear. Among the nose ornaments *nath* is the most prominent and a peculiar ornament of Marāṭhā women. It is made in gold frame with pearls and precious stones. Other minor nose decorations are the *morṇī, mugvaṭa, phulī* and *camkī*. Children's ornaments are *bindlyā, managaṭyā, kaḍitoḍe, vāḷe, toraḍyā, sākhaḷyā, hasaḷī*, which are made of gold and silver. But, leaving children without ornaments is becoming more fashionable.

Food.

Dietary habits of particular sections of the community may be slightly different but broadly speaking the pattern of food is the same in all talukas of Sāṅglī. While in the drier parts, jovār bread may be the staple food, in the hilly western parts bread of *nāglī* and rice may be in vogue. Other eatables like fruits and vegetables, milk and its products are consumed by all according to their means. The main dividing line in the food habits may, however, be the inclusion or otherwise of animal food in the diet. Brāhmaṇs, Jains and Liṅgāyats and such Marāṭhās as have taken a vow to eschew animal food, are ordinarily vegetarians. All other Hindū communities take meat or fish occasionally. Mutton is a favourite item in the diet of the Marāṭhās but beef is scrupulously excluded by all Hindūs ; it is indeed considered sacrilegious to eat beef by them.

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All agriculturists, artisans and pastoral classes in Sāṅglī habitually take three meals a day. The fare consists of *jovār* or *bājri*, rice and wheat on occasion, vegetables (leafy and fruitarian), split pulse and *aḷāṇ* or *zuṇkā*, *i.e.*, gram flour boiled with cumin, coriander, chillis, salt, turmeric powder and onions. *Chutṇy* made of garlic, chillis and salt is used as an appetiser almost daily. Besides grains, pulses, fruits, spices, oil, curds and butter, they occasionally eat eggs, fowl, meat and other flesh but very few can do so except on festive occasions like weddings, family festivals and days like Dasarā and Hoḷī. To offer an animal to a deity and then take its flesh as *prasād* is common enough. These people have a light breakfast in the morning before starting the day's work. It consists of *bhākarī*, *chutney* and plain water. This is called *nyāharī*. About noon time their meals are taken to the fields or places of work by their womenfolk or children. This lunch again consists of jovār or *bajra* bread, vegetables and split pulse. It has become common for these people to have a cup of tea also with *nyāharī*. In the evening, between 8 and 9 is taken the supper which consists of bread, rice, milk or buttermilk or curds and some vegetables.

Well-to-do people have for their staple food *poḷī* or *capātī* made of wheat flour, *bhāt* (boiled rice), *varaṇa* (boiled split pulse), *tūp* (clarified butter or ghee), fresh lemon, *bhājī* (vegetables), pickles and jams of various fruits. Milk and curds are necessary ingredients of their food. Flesh and fish are used by meat-eating communities. It is customary for most males of the family to eat *pānsupārī* after meals. Some smoke or chew tobacco. On festive occasions rich dishes like *puraṇācī poḷī*, *bāsundī*, *śrīkhaṇḍa*, *lāḍū*, *purī* etc., are prepared.

Holidays and Festivals.

Hindūs have many sacred or sanctified days during the course of the year. The first day of the month of Caitra is called Guḍhīpāḍvā which is celebrated by setting up in front of one's house a *guḍhī*, *i.e.*, a bamboo pole capped with a small silver or brass jar and new piece of silk cloth and a string of flowers hanging to it like a flag. A peculiar ritual of the day is to eat nīm leaves mixed with sugar early in the morning, have a sumptuous meal at noon and in the evening to visit the leading temple and particularly in villages to hear the *varṣaphala*, *i.e.*, the year's forecast read by the village priest or *Jośi* (astrologer).

Rāma's birthday comes on the 9th day of the first half of Caitra. A number of people even fast on this day. On the full moon day of Caitra, *Hanumān-Jayantī* is celebrated exactly at sunrise in the same way. It is customary to arrange *kīrtans* on the four previous nights preceding *Hanumān-Jayantī*.

Gauripūjā is a ceremony of worshipping Gaurī by organising a *haḷādkuṅkū* in most Brāhmaṇ, Prabhu and high class Marāṭhā households on any day between the third day of Caitra and the third day of Vaiśākha by women. Akṣaya-tṛtiyā is one of the lucky days and is considered proper by cultivators to begin field activities of the year. *Vaṭapaurṇimā*,

CHAPTER 3. The People. HINDUS. Holidays and Festivals.

the full moon day of Jyeṣṭha. is remembered in the name of Sāvitrī. Women go to a banyan tree, worship it and distribute presents among themselves. Brāhmaṇs are given *dakṣiṇā*. This worship is restricted to *suvāsinīs, i.e.,* to married women with their husbands alive. Prayers are offered for long life for husbands.

Ekādaśī, i.e., the 11th day in both the bright and dark halves of every month especially in Āṣāḍh or Kārtik is a day for prayer and fasting for all devotees of Kṛṣṇa.

The month of Śrāvaṇa is regarded as particularly sacred and dedicated to the worship of Śiva. A number of fasts, feasts and festivals occur in this month. All Mondays are devoted to prayer to Śiva, a half-day fast and a feast in the evening. All Fridays are the days of goddess Lakṣmī and are called *Sampad Śukravārs* on which women offer special worship. Every Tuesday in this month is devoted by newly wed girls to the worship of *Maṅgalagaurī* and at night there is feasting, playing and pranking among themselves by keeping late hours.

Nāgapañcamī, the bright fifth in this month is dedicated to the cobra. Clay cobra or its representation by sandal paste on a *pāṭ* is worshipped. Milk preparations are a speciality of the feast on this day. Live cobras brought by Phasepārdhīs and Gāruḍīs are fed milk. All activities like digging and ploughing are held up as they are believed to hurt the reptile world. In some places women put on their best dress and dance round in a ring keeping time to a song, which they sing collectively.

A peculiarity of this district is that of Śirāḷā. There is a collective worship of the cobra for which a public subscription is raised. A number of cobras are let loose in a compound and experts handle them. Great crowd and news-paper reporters attend this function.

The full-moon day in Śrāvaṇa is called *Nārāḷī Paurṇimā.* After a hearty meal in the noon, people go to the river side and propitiate the god of water, Varuṇa, by offering coconuts in the stream. This is a *Śrāvaṇī* or *upakarma* day for Yajurvedī and Atharvavedi Brahmans, when old sacred-threads are discarded and new ones worn. The day is also known as *Pavaṭyāci-Paurṇimā.*

Janmāṣṭamī, the 8th day in the dark half of *Śrāvaṇā,* is the day on which Lord Kṛṣṇa was born. It is observed as a fasting day by devotees. The next day is observed as what is called *Dahīkālā.* Youths and boys band together and display feats of strength and sleights of hand in the style of boy Kṛṣṇa and his playmates.

The no-moon day in Śrāvaṇa is known as *Piṭhorī Amāvāsyā.* It is observed as a fast by women in general, but particularly by those whose children are shortlived or subject to frequent illnesses. This day is observed in some villages as *Poḷā* or *Bendur*

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which is a peculiarly agricultural festival. It is a day dedicated to bullocks who are fed on sweet dishes and allowed full rest. Clay images of bullocks are gaily painted and worshipped. A procession of decorated bullocks is taken from outside to some temple in the villages.

Ganeśa Caturthi is a festival celebrated on the fourth day of Bhādrapada when painted clay figures of Gaṇapati are purchased and worshipped. The image is kept in the house from two to ten days according to family custom and ceremoniously immersed in a well or a stream. Conjoined with the Ganeśa festival on the 7th day of Bhādrapada, women hold a feast for three days in honour of Pārvatī or Gauri, mother of Gaṇeśa. A brass or clay mask of the goddess is duly installed near the idol of Gaṇapati, worshipped and then ceremoniously left in river or stream.

On the third and fifth days of Bhādrapada come *Haritalikā* and *Ṛṣi-Pancamī* which are observed as fasting days particularly by Brāhmaṇ women.

The second half of Bhādrapada is known as Pitṛpakṣa, the fortnight of forefathers, and is held sacred to the spirits of ancestors.

The *Navarātra* festival begins from the first day of Āśvina and lasts ten days, the first nine being known as Navarātra (nine nights) and the last as Dasarā, the 10th. An earthen jar filled with water with a coconut on the top is worshipped in honour of the goddess Ambābāi. On the tenth they worship weapons and field tools and so the day is also known as *Āyudhapūjā* day. Children worship their books and a function in honour of Sarasvatī is held in schools. This is a feasting day in every house. *Vijayā-daśami* is the third name by which Dasarā is known. It was the custom in olden times in this district for Marāṭhā soldiers and *śiledārs* to start on their expeditions and, therefore, they crossed the borders of their respective villages. The day came to be known as *Simollanghana* day. Even now this practice is symbolically preserved by people gathering on the border of a village or near a temple and worshipping a heap of Āpṭa or Śamī branches and twigs with a Brāhmaṇ priest to officiate. The Āpṭā or Śamī leaves are procured and exchanged as gold among themselves.

The full-moon day of *Āsvina* is known as *Kojāgirī Paurṇimā* as also *Navānna Paurṇimā.* Agricultural communities celebrate it with great happiness. They spend the whole day working in fields and even take their lunch there. At night people keep awake and play different games and take sweetened milk because the belief is that Goddess Lakṣmī goes about everywhere and does not bless one who sleeps instead of keeping awake on this night.

Divāḷī or *Dīpāvali* festival signifying "a feast of lights" starts from the 13th of the second half of Āśvina and lasts for

six days. Every evening earthen lamps called *paṇatīs* are lighted in all house frontage as also in every nook and corner of the house. The first day is known as *Dhanatrayodaśī*. On the day women and girls take a special bath and the day is devoted to special cleaning and preparing sweet dishes. On the 14th, which is called *Naraka Caturdaśī* men and boys take a special bath *abhyaṅga*, by besmearing oil and fragrant materials to their bodies. The whole day is spent in feasting and merry-making and visiting friends and relatives. The no-moon day is devoted to the worship of Lakṣmī. Merchants and tradesmen celebrate this day by holding Lakṣmī-pūjana and asking friends and customers to *Pānsupārī*. The next day is the first day of the month of Kārtika marking the beginning of the new commercial year. It is called *Balipratipadā* in honour of the Balī, who was a benefactor of agriculturists, but who is known to have been put down in the nether world by Vāmana, one of the incarnations of Viṣṇū. Wives adore their husbands by waving a small lighted lamp before them and get a suitable present. The last day of the festival is called *Bhāubīj*, when brothers visit their sisters and dine at their houses. Sisters wave a lighted lamp in the face of the brothers and receive presents. The *Divāḷī* festival is the king of all Hindū festivals.

On the 12th of Kārtik it is usual to celebrate the marriage of *Tuḷaśī* (holy basil) with Viṣṇu as if it was a human marriage.

The full-moon day of *Kārtik* known as *Tripuri Paurṇimā* is celebrated in memory of Śiva's victory over the demon Tripurāsūra. *Deepmālās* or stone lamp-pillars in front of temples have a big fire lighted on their tops and all niches carrying lighted earthen lamps.

Makara Sankrānta comes in the month of Pauṣ which coincides with January 14th when the sun enters the *Makara Rāśi* (The zodiac sign of Capricorns). It is marked with a feast in honour of the God Sun. Men and women in their gay dresses go about and exchange *tiḷ-gūḷ* (sesame sweet) and *halvā* as greeting of the season.

Mahāśivarātra comes on the 14th day of the dark half of *Māgha* which is observed as a fasting day by devotees of *Śiva*.

The last festival of the year is *Śīmgā* or *Hoḷī*. The advent of this festival is eagerly awaited in the countryside by both old and young. The main day of this festival is the full-moon day of Phālguna. On the Paurṇimā, the special dish of the day is *purāṇapoḷī* (wheatcakes stuffed with sugar and crushed gram pulse). In the afternoon, a plantain tree, bearing fruit or a long pole of some other tree is fixed, a stone is worshipped at the bottom of the pole and fuel and cowdung cakes are piled in a heap and set on fire. The next day, called *Dhuḷavaḍ*, is also observed as a holiday. The dark fifth of Phālguna is called *Raṅga-pancamī* when coloured water is sprinkled with or without syringe by young and old against all and sundry and no one is expected to take offence.

CHAPTER 3.

The People.

HINDUS.

Games.

A number of major games are played in the district in the school and college playgrounds as also in the countryside. Indian games do not need much equipment except a well-made playground. *Huṭuṭū, kho-kho, laṅgaḍī, aṭyāpaṭyā, viṭidāṇḍū* and *lagorya* are some of these. These games are popular in every district, with some local variations in the rules of the game concerned. Standardised forms have now been evolved by the Akhil Mahārāṣṭra Śarīrika Śikṣaṇa Maṇḍaḷ which are now widely adopted and strictly observed when the games are played in contested tourneys.

It is only in towns that cricket, foot-ball, tennis and badminton etc. are played mostly in schools and colleges. Lawyers have here and there a tennis club. Gymkhanas are only at places like Sāṅglī where play in cards is met with. Chess and *Gañjīfās* are becoming scarce as domestic games. A number of forms of recreational activity are traditionally known to the people and are practised in the households of the rich and the poor.

The difference between the play interests of girls and boys is such as cannot be overlooked. Girls generally prefer amusements like doll-dressing and are greatly interested in dancing, skipping, and singing. Boys, on the other hand, love to play strenuous games involving muscular dexterity and skill. Some of the games in which girls may be said to specialise are *sagargoṭe* and all kinds of *phugaḍya*.

MUSLIMS.

The only numerically important community in Sāṅglī other than the Hindūs is the Muslim. Over 80 per cent of the Muslims are classified under three family names, *viz.* Saiyads, Paṭhāns and Śaikhs. There are a few families styled as Moghals. Many are known by the occupations they follow such as Atārs, Nālbands, Maṇiyārs, Bagvans etc. Most of them were originally Hindūs, who after embracing Islam, took the name Śaikh or Paṭhan or Saiyad from the religious or military leader under whom they served. Some of them have some strain of Arab, Abyssinian, Persian, Moghal or North Indian blood.

Except the Bohoras, Khojās and Memans who have comparatively recently come from Gujarāt to the district in the wake of trade and business, all Musalmāns are like the Marāṭhās and Kuṇabīs. They speak corrupt Hindustāni with a fair mixture of Marāṭhī words, the intonation and accent being nearer to Marāṭhī than to north Indian Urdū.

Houses.

The houses of Muslims do not differ very much from those of others. In towns the well-to-do live in two-storeyed houses with stone and cement walls and tiled roofs and surrounded by a compound. Most of the houses are tile-roofed cottages with brick walls and plastered with mud and cowdung. Village houses are much like poor town houses, one difference being that they have no wells. Women bring water from ponds or rivers.

Food.

Town Muslims take two meals a day, breakfast at about 9 a.m. of millet or wheat bread, pulse, mutton and vegetables and the supper at night at about 8 or 9. It consists of boiled rice, mutton and pulse if possible and bread with pulse and chutney of chillis, if poor. Muslims in villages and some rich town Muslims have three meals a day, villagers taking a cold breakfast at about 7 in the morning before going to their fields, a mid-day meal in the field and supper on reaching home at night. The staple food of villagers is millet bread, pulse and vegetables. Though all Muslims are non-vegetarians, very few can afford meat even occasionally. All Muslims, however, manage to get mutton on holidays like Bakr-Id. No local Muslims are particularly fond of beef but Bohoras and Memans prefer it. Buffalo beef is not taken by any Muslims but fowls, eggs and fish are taken whenever available. Muslims insist on flesh being made available by killing animals according to Korāṇic injunctions. Muslim tradesmen take tea or coffee and peasants take tea or milk with bread. Tobacco smoking, chewing and snuffing is common among all.

Dress.

Most Sāṅgli Muslims dress in Hindū style. But *śervāṇi* and *pyjama* have an impress of traditional wear. *Cuḍīdār pyjamās* and *salavārs* are also worn in imitation of Uttar Pradeśa and Punjābi Muslims. The tendency among youths is, however, to take to trousers and shirt or bush-shirt. At the time of prayer a Muslim wears a *luṅgī* (loin-cloth) and *pairaṇ*. Indoors, men put on a head-scarf, a waistcoat and a waist or loin-cloth; out of doors, on all occasions, elderly men wear a flowing turban, a coat, trousers and shoes, especially on festive occasions. Muslim women dress like Marāṭhā women using a *sadi* and *coli*. The Bohoras, Khojas and Memans use preformed turbans and put on loose trousers and shirts and long coats while going out. Their women put on a petticoat, backless bodices, and a head scarf (*odhaṇi*). Their shirts are loose and reach the knee. Rich and middle class women alone observe *purdah* and put on a black veil with only holes for the eyes while going out.

Ornaments

It is not customary for men to wear any ornaments except marriage or engagement rings of gold or silver. Women are given a number of ornaments at the time of marriage in keeping with the husbands' means. Parents also make ornaments as marriage presents. Necklaces like *ṭhuśi* and *boramāḷ* are worn by Muslim women like Marāṭhā women.

Rites and Rituals.

Being unwilling and sometimes forced converts to Islām generations ago, Sāṅgli Muslims are not bigoted and even do not care very much for what are considered essential Muslim rites and rituals. They do not appear to be very particular about circumcision of boys nor about marriage or death rites being conducted by a *kāzī*. The *bismillā* (initiation) and *akikā* (sacrifices) ceremonies are often neglected owing partly to ignorance and partly to poverty. Attendance for prayers at a mosque is rare, but they are careful for prayers on Bakr-Id and

during Ramzān. Ramzān fasts are also observed. Their traditional religious ministrants are the *kāzī* (judge), who now acts mainly as a marriage registrar, the *khātib* (preacher), the *mullā* or *maulānā* i.e., priest and the *mujāvar* (beedle), but these offices have now practically disappeared and services at the mosque are led by any *maulavī* or learned laymen. The *bāṅgī* (call-giver) keeps the mosque clean, shouts the prayer-call five times a day and calls guests to marriage and other ceremonies. Except Bohoras and Khojās, all Muslims believe in *pīrs* (saints) to whom they pray for children or health and offer gifts to them. Most craftsmen and agriculturists believe in Khaṇḍobā, Mhasobā, Mariāī and Saṭvāī, like the Hindū Marāṭhās and Kuṇbīs to whom they make gifts, offer vows and worship publicly or privately. Hājīs among Sāṅglī Muslims are rare because few can afford an excursion to Meccā and Medinā but it is customary among them to attend fairs of local Muslim saints in Sāṅglī or neighbouring districts.

Marriage.

As far as birth, marriage and funeral rites are concerned, the Sāṅglī Muslims follow the same customs and practices as the Muslims in Sātārā and Kolhāpūr do. Offer of marriage comes from the grooms' parents. After the girl is approved, the parents of both the bride and the groom consult the *kāzī* and *maulānā* regarding the birth stars of the couple to be. That settled favourably, dowry is paid for the girl to her father according to the terms fixed. This practice is true of poor and lower middle class families. Well-to-do people bear their own expenses. Among them, it is found difficult to find suitable husbands for girls, because caste endogamy and observation of some Hindū marriage customs still prevail in rural areas. Betrothal takes place about a year before marriage on a lucky day fixed by the *kāzī* when the groom sends a present of a green *sāḍī*, *colī* and *toḍās* to the bride and the bride's father sends him a turban, a silver ring and a silk kerchief.

On the eve of the marriage, a booth is built in front of the house with the *muhurtmeḍha* (lucky post) planted in the ground at a lucky moment. At night the *rajjaka* is held in which a series of songs and hymns in praise of Allāh are sung by the women of the family to the accompaniment of drums. While the music goes on, *gulgulās* (small stuffed wheat cakes) and *rahims* (boiled rice flour balls made with milk, sugar and rose water) are heaped in the name of Allāh in two miniature pyramids, one for the bride and the other for the groom. After offering red cotton cord, flower and burnt incense to the heaps, they are broken and the cakes and balls are distributed among the women. Next day a woman with her husband alive marks the bridegroom's clothes with turmeric paste without making him aware of it. This is called *cor haḷad* (secret turmeric) which is followed by *sāv haḷad* (public turmeric) ceremony, in which the bride and the groom are rubbed with the turmeric paste each separately and one after the other. This is followed by the *biyapari* feast at which incense is burnt in the name of Allāh.

Friends and relations make presents of clothes to the parents of the bride and the groom. A feast of *pulāv* (rice cooked with mutton) is given to all male guests.

The ceremony of turmeric-rubbing is followed by that of *tel mehendi* (oil and henna). About ten at night on the marriage day, the bridegroom's friends and kinsmen seat him on horseback and escort him to the bride's house in a procession. The bridegroom is dressed in *jāmā* (long coat) and a *mandil* (flowing turban) and over the dress a cloak of jasmine and other flowers covers the body from head to foot. After arrival at the marriage hall, the groom and party are received and seated by the bride's relations and friends. The *kāzī* is summoned to register the marriage. Two *vakīls* (agents) and two witnesses, one for the bride and the other for the groom stand before the *kāzī* and declare that they have agreed to this marriage and are ready to hear evidence. Before this the witness should have directly approached the bride and after repeating the name of the groom and his age should have taken her consent to accept him as her husband. After hearing personally the bride's consent, they declare the same before the *kāzī* and the assembled guests. The *kazi* then asks the bride's father and the groom to sit opposite each other, hold each other's right hands and registers the marriage. After registration and payment of the dowry fixed, the groom announces to all present that he has chosen the bride as his wife with the said sum of dowry. The bride's father says that he has given his daughter to the groom as his wife in marriage with all lawful ceremonies. The groom then embraces his father-in-law, shakes hands with him and bows to all present. Till late hours in the morning the groom sits in the hall listening to music and witnessing dancing by girls. About dawn he is called into the women's apartment by the bride's brother. The bride and groom are asked to sit on a cot and look at each other's face. The *kāzī* takes a little sugar in his hand and asks the groom whether the sugar is sweet or his wife is sweet. He answers that Al Korān is sweeter and the sweetest. The husband and wife look at each other in a mirror and placing a hand on the other's back bow five times to Allāh. The bride and groom are taken in *varāt* at noon. The bride sits in a carriage and the groom rides a horse and escorts the bride to his house. On reaching the front gate, he is welcomed by sisters and cousins who before allowing him to come in make him promise that he would give his daughters in marriage to their sons.

Divorce.

The Korān does not demand any justification from a Muslim husband if he wants to divorce his wife. A woman claims divorce on the ground of ill-treatment, insufficiency of maintenance and impotence on the part of the husband. But divorces are few and far between ow'ng probably to the poverty which acts as a deterrent. The divorce given by a man is called *talāq*. In case of the woman she has to apply to a *kāzī* for divorce and it is called *khala*.

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MUSLIMS.

After-death rites.

Muslims bury their dead. When there is death, some relative, in company of a *mullā*, goes to the market and buys a shroud 75 feet long for a man and 90 feet long for a woman. Rose-water, scents, sulphuret of antimony, frankincense and yellow earth are the other articles needed in a funeral. In the case of a woman frankincense oil and a flower-net are additional articles needed. The dead body is washed clean and laid on back on a wooden board. The *mullā* writes, "There is no God but Allāh and Mohammed is his Prophet" on the chest and forehead of the dead and puts pieces of camphor at all joints of the dead body. The body is then wrapped in the shroud and placed in *janaza* (bier) and carried to the grave-yard.

As the body is borne to the grave-yard, the men accompanying the party keep on repeating *Kalmā-i-Shahādat* and other verses from the Korān as they proceed. The bearers keep on changing and relieving one another. At the *Idgā* (prayer place) all kneel and pray. As the grave is being filled, everyone puts a little earth. When the grave is closed, there are other prayers said known as *Khatmās*. On reaching home of the dead also the *khatmas* are repeated. On the first day after the funeral, the mourners are fed by their friends and relations. On the third the *ziyarat* is held. This means that the mourners go to the burial ground, whitewash the tomb and lay flowers, *sabajā* (basil Ocymum pilosum) and sweet-meats beside it. Feasts in memory of the dead are held on the 10th and 20th day and a grand feast on the 40th day. On this day a garland of flowers is kept hanging from the centre of the roof on a large platter filled with a number of savoury dishes and the mourners burn incense before the platter, offering prayers for the soul of the dead. Then there is a funeral feast. In the evening Korān is read. This is called *moulad*. The *maulanā* is paid for his funeral services. According to Muslim law, the only form of mourning is that the widow of the dead be kept in strict seclusion for 50 days.

COMMUNITY LIFE

The joint family under the protection of the grandfather and the grandmother with not only brothers and sisters but even cousins under the same roof and a house with score of rooms and balconies and galleries will only be rarely met with in some villages of Sāngli district. Even brothers when married now live together but in very few families. The joint family system has broken down even in villages where it was a sort of a co-operative for joint agricultural endeavour. The matriarchal system prevails nowhere. The patriarchal system also is now extinct. Ancestral property according to Hindū usage is divided equally among sons and if in the life-time of a father, his sons and he begin to live apart, the property has to be equally divided. With recent amendments in Hindū law, even a sister has a share in the father's property if it is not self-acquired. If self-acquired its owner can dispose of it in any way he likes. He need not, if he choose, leave anything to his sons and daughters and can gift it away to any charitable institution or religious organisation or any other purpose. This could be done by leaving a will behind

and appointing executors. An issueless parent used to adopt a son but even that tendency is weakening under the influence of modern ideas. Instances of a widowed mother and her adopted son coming to loggerheads are by no means rare and the old idea of having one's family name perpetuated is no longer found fascinating enough to go in for adoptions. The other-worldly consideration of having a son to perform the *śrāddha* etc for the benefit of the dead in after-death life does not carry much weight with men under the influence of modern education. They are, more and more, developing a materialistic outlook on life and affairs. Under the new adoption laws a man and wife may have separate adopted sons and daughters if they so desire.

Majority of the people in this district follow Hindū religion which emphasizes the attainment of *Mokṣa* as the ultimate end of an individual's life. The proper means towards this end is through *Bhakti yoga*. This philosophy was preached for centuries together by all the saints and religious leaders of Mahārāṣṭra under the name of Bhāgavatdharma. Although it conflicts with the basic concepts of community life in the modern sense of the term, it provided people with ample opportunities to come together under a common bond of religion, especially on occasions such as Bhajana, Pūjana, Kīrtana and Pravacana selected for the purpose.

Religion, however, was not the only force binding together the society at large; the then prevailing economic system based upon the self-sufficiency of village as a unit was also responsible for the rise of what is popularly known as village community. In Sāṅglī district, as in other parts of the then Bombay Presidency, the village communities with all their merits and drawbacks thrived under that system

During this period when the social life of an individual was conditioned by the complex mechanism of the village community, the people were very much divided by the barriers of castes and class and could seldom come together except on the common platform popularly called *cavaḍī*. The only social events that could bring them together were the different festivals like Vijayādaśmaī, Divāḷi and Holī, in which they participated freely and in large numbers. At that time there were no reading rooms, clubs or recreation centres throughout the district, except at the district headquarters, *i.e.*, Sāṅglī. There were no theatres, too. The dramas were staged only occasionally, usually by local artists.

FAIRS.

The district has a number of places of pilgrimage such as Audumbar, Brahmanāḷ and Tuṅg. They are visited by people at least once a year. Besides, there are number of places of religious importance where annual fairs are held. Fairs represent a peculiar feature of Indian culture. They are generally held in honour of certain deity or *pīr*. People flock at these places to get a glimpse (*darśan*) of their deity or to seek relief from the tedium of their daily routine life. Following tables

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FAIRS.

show the taluka-wise villages and towns in Sāṅglī district where fairs* are held at least once a year—

TABLE No. 13

TALUKA-WISE PLACES OF FAIRS IN SANGLI DISTRICT

Serial No. (1)	Taluka (2)	Villages (3)	Towns (4)
1	Khānāpūr	126	1
2	Miraj	96	2
3	Jath	86	..
4	Śirāḷā	76	..
5	Tāsgāṅv	68	1
6	Wālwā	58	2
	Total ..	510	6

The fairs can very well be classified into *jatrās* and *yātrās*. Whereas *jatrā* is a gathering of people for any purpose, *yātrā* is necessarily a gathering of people for religious purposes at a place of pilgrimage or *tīrthakṣetra*. In this district Sāṅglī, Tasgāṅv, Tuṅg and Brahmanāḷ are important places of *yātrās*. Places where *jatrās* are held are too many to quote. The distinction between *jatrā* and *yātrā* is, however, very loose. Hence the term fair is used to cover both.

The following may be mentioned as the important fairs in Sāṅglī district.

TABLE No. 14

IMPORTANT FAIRS IN SANGLI DISTRICT

Name of the place (Village/Town) (1)	Distance from Rly. Station, Bus stop (in miles) (2)	Name of the Fair (3)	Period when it is held (4)	No. of people attending (5)
Sāṅglī	..	Gaṇapati Festival	Aug-Sept.	100,000 to 150,000
Sāṅglī	..	Śrī Kṛṣṇā River festival.	Middle of Feb. ..	25,000 to 30,000
Viṭā	26	Bhairavnāth Yātrā	Caitra Vadya Aṣṭamī (8th).	20,000
Islāmpūr ..	9½	Śambhū Appā fair	Five days from Paurṇimā in Kārtik.	16,000

* Fairs also include Urus.

TABLE No. 14—*contd.*

Name of the place (Village/Town)	Distance from Rly. Station, Bus stop (in miles)	Name of the Fair	Period when it is held	No. of people attending
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Miraj	..	Khvājā Śamnā Meer Pir *Urus*.	24th Rajjab Gandharat	10,000
Ciṅcaṇī-Vāṅgī ..	4	*Urus*	Feb.-March	50,000
Waṅgī	9	Ambābāī ..	Kārtik sud 15, Oct.-Nov.	10,000
Leṅgre	24	Lālkandar (*Urus*)	Caitra-Mar.-April ..	25,000
Reṇāvī	32	Revaṇasiddha ..	Mahāśivarātra-Māgh. Jan.-Feb	25,000
Zare	45	Virobādev ..	Caitra sud 15 to Ch. Vad. 5, Mar-April.	40,000
Kharsuṇḍī ..	28	Pauṣi Yātra	Pausa Paurṇimā Dec.-Jan.	50,000
		Cāitrī Yātrā ..	Caitra Vad 12, Mar-April.	60,000
Śirāḷā	20	Gorakhnāth ..	Caitra Vad 11, Mar.-April.	20,000
Peṭh	20	Khaṇḍeśvar Maṇakeśvar.	Phālgun Sud. 2, Feb.-March.	20,000
Aṣṭā	12	*Urus*	Feb.-March	20,000
Jath	14	Yallammā ..	Nov.-Dec. .. .	25,000
Arewāḍī	2	Virobādevī ..	Cait-Sud. 5-7 Mar.-April.	20,000
Kharśing ..	14	Mhasobā ..	Caitra Paurṇimā Mar.-April.	10,000

Most of the places where fairs are held are approachable by roads and have regular bus-stops. Some of them are on railway routes or to a greater part of their length accessible by trains. In a few cases, however, they are at long distance, sometimes to the extent of 10 to 12 miles and have to be walked down. Number of people attending fair differ from place to place according to its importance. In rural areas it generally ranges from 1,000 to 25,000 but in urban areas it may go even up to 1,00,000. The common deities in whose honour these fairs are held are Yallammādevī, Siddheśvar and Gaṇapati. The taluka-wise number of temples and mosques of particular deities are given in the accompanying tables *viz.*, tables 15 and 16. At fair it is the usual practice of the people to make offerings to the deity in order

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to get their wish fulfilled. Flowers and coconuts are common offerings; but in rare cases even valuables are offered to the idol.

TABLE No. 15

TALUKA-WISE NUMBER OF TEMPLES AND MOSQUES, ETC., IN SANGLI DISTRICT

Taluka (1)	Dharmaśāḷās (2)	Maṭhs (3)	Mosques (4)	Dargāhs (5)	Churches (6)	Temples (7)
(1) Jath	23	32	81	33	..	413
(2) Khānāpūr	30	31	75	24	1	600
(3) Miraj	21	15	83	37	9	409
(4) Śirāḷā Mahāl ..	3	6	15	5	1	264
(5) Tāsgāmv	24	36	59	24	1	412
(6) Wāḷwā	12	22	62	17	5	324
District Total .	113	142	375	140	17	2,422

TABLE No. 16

TEMPLES OF PARTICULAR DEITIES (NOT GENERALLY FOUND ELSEWHERE ARE GIVEN TALUKA-WISE AS UNDER).

SANGLI DISTRICT

Jath Taluka.—Brahmanath. Margubāī, Verāḷbā, Virabhadra, Nagunsiddha, Mahaliṅgeśvar, Banśeṅkarī, Mallikārjun, Yallamādevi, Bankeśvar, Keṅcarāya Dev, Saṅgameśvar, Sidrameśvar.

Khanāpūr Taluka. Jyotiliṅg, Dhavaba Dev, Ambikā Devī, Bhairavanath, Kalbhairav, Doṅgarai Devī, Dharmarāj, Revaṇsiddha, Cauraṅganath, Yamai Devī, Cauṇḍeśvarī, Liṅgeśvar, Uttareśvar, Sagareśvar, Basaveśvar, Saṭavāī Devi, Dhavalaliṅg Dev, Jogeśvar Dev, Baneśvar, Jugai Devī, Bhimaśaṅkar, Bhojaliṅg, Cakreśvar.

Miraj Taluka- Basaveśvar, Saṅgameśvar, Yallama Devī, Yamai Devī, Brahmanath, Kanakeśvar, Margubāī Devī, Janubai, Hariścandreśvar.

Shiraḷa Taluka. Jugāi Devi, Kalamā Devī, Navalāī Devī, Ninai Devi, Vagheśvari, Trimbaka Devi, Āsubāī Devī, Khareśvar, Vakai Devī, Kaḷeśvar, Ātmaliṅg Dev, Cinceśvar, Maṅgeśvar, Cauṇḍeśvar, Gorakhanath.

Tasgaṁv Taluka. Margubāī, Bahirobā, Bannasappa, Mayāppā, Jyotirliṅg, Padmadevi, Śri Kusumeśvar, Brahmanāth, Nageśvar, Kalamā Devī, Aṅkaleśvar, Yallamadevī, Śrī Jitsiddha, Revaṇsiddha Honaī Devi, Narsobā, Kāśiviśveśvar, Ṛṣabha Dev, Harakeśvar, Uttareśvar, Lakameśvar, Cauṇḍeśvari Devī.

Walwa Taluka- Vaṭeśvar, Kanakeśvar, Yamāī Devī, Mallikarjun, Machindranāth, Yallamādevī, Keśavarāj Dev, Paśupatī, Ekavīrā Devī.

The duration of the fair is generally one day. In certain cases, however, the celebration may last for ten to fifteen days. The Gaṇapati festival of Sāṅglī, for example, starts on Bhadrapad Sud Pratipadā, and lasts for about a week. So also is the festival at Tāsgaiv. Festivals at certain other places too have longer durations in the same way

The usual form of rejoicing at fairs is shopping, eating, drinking and enjoying the *tamāśas*. A great bustle and commotion is sure to be met with at this time. Shops of various kinds dot the small spot of the village fair and people, young and old alike, rush in and out of them, busy, making purchases. Important among these shops are those of sweets, readymade garments, cosmetics and stationery articles. Hotels and tea-shops also abound. People coming mostly from rural areas are in gay mood and spend lavishly to their hearts' content.

ENTERTAINMENTS.

At certain fairs wrestling bouts are also arranged; but the most common entertainment is *tamāśā*, or a dancing troupe usually composed of local artists. Sāṅglī district has already made a name for such artists coming from Reṭhare Dharan, Kāmerī, Islampūr, Kupvad Kavaṭāpūr, Ghaṭnāndre, Kavaṭhe Ekand, Tāsgāṅv, Vayphaḷe Vadiyerabad and so on. The *tamāśā* or what is now popularly called as *Lokanaṭya* forms even today an important aspect of the cultural life in the village. It is generally performed after the harvest season, for it is only then that the farmers could afford to turn to the lighter aspects of their social environment.

While *tamāśā* allures the young and romantic blood, *bhajan* lifts the senses to spiritual heights. The *bhajan* is done generally on auspicious or religious days. It provides entertainment to the masses through devotional songs sung in harmony with *mṛdaṅg* and *ṭāl*. The tradition of singing *bhajan* is kept alive even today. Under the Block Development scheme many of the Bhajan Mandals from various villages were supplied with musical instruments and other aids.

If *bhajān* can widen the spiritual outlook of an individual to abnegation, the *talim* or gymnasium can develop the physical power in him. Gymnasiums are scattered fairly widely over the district and number of gymnasts are regularly trained in them. In fact, the district ranks only next to Kolhāpur in the whole of Mahārāṣtra in giving birth to gymnasts of repute. At the time of fair, wrestling bouts figure prominently in the people's outdoor recreation.

Now every town in the district is having a theatre where Hindi and Maraṭhī and occasionally English films are exhibited. Villages are visited by the 'touring talkies' almost annually to entertain the people. Dramas and other stage performances also take place quite frequently. Dancing troupes visit the district

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ENTERTAINMENTS.

only occasionally, generally at the time of fair. The only type of dance peculiar to this district and popular is the Gajnrutya or Elephant Dance performed by the shepherds from Arevāḍī and Āṭpāḍī areas. This folk dance represents the rare specimen of an ancient art still preserved in the district.

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CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

AGRICULTURAL POPULATION.

AGRICULTURE HAS BEEN THE MAIN SOURCE OF LIVELIHOOD OF THE PEOPLE IN THE DISTRICT. The owner cultivators and the agricultural labourers form the two important classes of the agricultural population. The large majority of the population, however, has to pursue one of the subsidiary occupations to supplement the income from land. The agricultural labour also has to seek employment in the industrial sector as there is very little scope for assured employment in agriculture. Unless the agronomy of the district is taken out from the ambit of the subsistence farming and organised by introducing the improved and scientific methods of cultivation on a large scale on a long term basis keeping in view the commercial side too, the land in the district will scarcely be able to maintain the agricultural population which is increasing at geometrical progression.

The 1961 census revealed that the "net increase in rural population of the district has been 88.94 per cent over that of 1901 and 106.01 per cent over that of 1921. The rates of variation in rural population have never followed any trend. The urban population had grown faster at the expense of rural population. As a result, the rural population increased at a lower rate than the total population. The percentage of rural population gradually decreased both for the district and the State from 1911. In 1961 it has shown an opposite trend, mostly due to declassification of 21 towns, whose population is now included in the rural population of the district".[1]

The rates of variation in rural population and the percentages of rural population to total population of the district since 1901 are as follows:—

Year	Rate of variation in rural population	Percentage of rural population to total population
1901	..	85 26
1911	−4·72	85 48
1921	−3 74	84 54
1931	+16·91	83 29
1941	+14·36	82 90
1951	+5·59	71·26
1961	+45·93	84·36

[1] District Census Handbook, Sangli, 1961, p.13.

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The density of rural population is the highest in Walwa taluka (677 persons per sq mile) as the lands in the taluka are the richest and yield the best garden and dry crops. The Jath taluka on the other hand has the lowest density of population (159 persons per sq. mile) mainly due to the poorest lands.

RAINFALL

The agronomy of the district is still dependent on the vagaries of nature. The amount and time of the rainfall determine the pattern of crops and agricultural operations in the district. It varies in different parts of the district. The average rainfall in Shirala and areas round about comes to about 1016 mm (40″), in Tasgaon and Khanapur talukas 508 mm (20″) and in Sangli and Miraj areas it comes to about 457.2 mm (18″). The rainfall in Kavathemahankal, Jath and Atpadi areas on the other hand is very short and untimely and comes to about 254 to 381 mm (10″ to 15″).

The water-supply from the rivers is also not sufficient as most of the rivers dry up in late summer. Krishna and Yerala are the only two important rivers which supply water for irrigation.

TABLE No. 1.

AVERAGE RAINFALL IN MILLIMETRES IN SANGLI DISTRICT, 1901—1957

Station (1)	RF RD (2)	April (3)	May (4)	June (5)	July (6)	August (7)	September (8)	October (9)	November (10)	December (11)	January (12)	February (13)	March (14)
Sangli	RF	21·09	47·44	69·75	100·25	77·09	93 16	87·45	32·13	6·06	3·48	0·42	4·73
	RD	1·7	2·9	5·7	10·3	7·5	6·2	5·2	1·8	0·4	0·2	0·2	0·5
Miraj	RF	23·85	51·92	74·28	110·43	86·08	106·71	103·65	36·42	6·81	2·89	1·05	3·92
	RD	1·8	3·7	4·6	10·6	8 2	6·8	6·0	2·2	0·5	0·3	0·1	0·5
Jath	RF	18·47	33·87	68·53	64·17	63 85	101·30	82·16	32·08	7·47	19·59	1·02	5·49
	RD	1·5	3·0	5·4	5 6	4·5	7·8	5·5	2·0	0·5	0·2	0·2	0·6
Islampur	RF	25·97	41·99	88·25	148·54	82·94	95·51	98·09	32·28	7·77	3·44	1·22	5·79
	RD	1·7	2·9	6·5	12·0	7·8	6·3	6·0	1·9	0·5	0·2	0·1	0·5
Shirala	RF	23·76	39·09	12·52	272·54	150 56	103·13	98·12	35·89	4·60	3·50	0·38	6·01
	RD	1·8	2·6	8·6	17·6	13·4	7·0	6.2	2·2	0·5	0·2	0·5	0·5
Vita	RF	16·06	33·88	74·86	172·88	63·36	121 48	76·40	33·78	5·47	2·99	3·43	3·38
	RD	1·3	2·5	6·0	8·7	6·7	12·3	4·9	1·7	0·3	0·2	0·03	0·3
Tasgaon	RF	23·58	45·61	88·41	93·23	74 59	113·27	93·59	71·85	5·97	5·43	0·96	3·63
	RD	1·9	3·2	6 7	10·2	7·0	7·0	5·6	2·0	0·5	0·2	0·07	0·4

RF indicates average rainfall in millimetres.
RD indicates average number of rainy days.

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AGRICULTURAL SEASONS.

Kharif and *rabi*, are the two important agricultural seasons in the district. This division is mainly based on the way in which the crops are irrigated. The crops which are taken in the early south-west monsoon are called *kharif* crops while those harvested in the winter are known as *rabi* crops. The latter are grown with the help of irrigation and occasional fair weather showers due in November. *Kharif* season usually starts from June-July and ends in September-October. *Kharif* crops are sown from the first week of June to mid-July and harvested during the period from September to December while *rabi* crops are sown in November and reaped in March. Generally cereals are produced as *kharif* crops while wheat, some pulses, etc., are grown in *rabi* season. Jowar can be taken both as a *kharif* crop or *rabi* crop depending upon the system of crop rotation followed by the cultivators.

SOILS.

Soil formations in Sangli district have been predominantly influenced by the climate. The district has three distinct climatic zones. The western zone, which receives very heavy rainfall, has lateritic soils on up-ghats and reddish brown soils on hill slopes, the latter being developed on parent material of trap rock. The transition zone of Krishna valley has deep black soils of alluvial origin. The third is the eastern drier zone, which consists largely of granular black soils and poor shallow soils. Saline-alkaline soils are met with in the lowlying patches in the areas of low rainfall.

Typical soil profiles examined in the district are presented in Table Nos. 2 to 7 and the analytical data of the samples collected are given in Table No. 8.

TABLE No. 2.

TYPICAL PROFILE OF SHALLOW SOIL.

Profile No. 1.

Village: Atpadi, Mahal: Atpadi, District: Sangli.

Relief: Undulating to moderately hilly. Erosion: Severely gullied area.
Land use: Bajri. Surface condition: Moderately stoney.
Slope: 1 to 3 per cent.
Drainage: Moderately well drained.

Horizon (1)	Thickness (2)	Colour (3)	Texture (4)	Structure (5)	Consistency (6)	Miscellaneous concretions, roots, moisture, etc. (7)	Sample depth (8)
I ..	203·2 mm (8″) ..	Reddish brown	Sandy clay ..	Structureless ..	Loose ..	Moist, mixed with murum particles.	203·2 mm (0″—8″)
			Below disintegrated soft murum.				

TABLE No. 3.

TYPICAL PROFILE OF SHALLOW SOIL.

Profile No. 2.

Village: Atpadi. Mahal: Atpadi. District: Sangli.

Relief: Relatively level to undulating. Erosion: Moderately eroded.
Drainage: Well drained. Land use: Cultivated Land.
Slope: 1 to 3 per cent. Surface condition: Stoney.
Sub-soil water table: 30 ft.

Horizon (1)	Thickness (2)	Colour (3)	Texture (4)	Structure (5)	Consistency (6)	Miscellaneous concretions, roots, moisture, etc. (7)	Sample depth (8)
I ..	254 mm (10″)	Light brown	Loamy sand	Structureless	Loose and friable	Dry	254 mm (0″—10″)
		Below disintegrated soft murum.					

TABLE No. 4.

Typical Profile of Medium Deep Soils.

Profile No. 3.

Village: Vita, Taluka: Khanapur, District: Sangli.

Drainage: Moderately well drained.
Sub-soil water table: 35 ft.
Slope: 1 to 3 per cent.
Relief: Relatively level to undulating.

Erosion: Slightly eroded.
Land use: Cultivated land.
Surface condition: Moderately stoney.

Horizon	Thickness	Colour	Texture	Structure	Consistency	Miscellaneous concretions, roots, moisture, etc.	Sample depth
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
I ..	228·6 mm (9")	Reddish brown	Clayey ..	Granular ..	Friable ..	Few lime concretions, moist	228·6 mm (0"—9")
II ..	304·8 mm (12") ..	Dark reddish brown.	Sandyclay loam	Blocky ..	Friable ..	Few sand and lime particles, moist.	228·6 mm—533·4 mm (9"—21").
III ..	381 mm (15") ..	Dark reddish brown.	Sandyclay loam	Blocky ..	Loose and friable	Mixed with murum pieces and sand particles.	533·4 mm—914·4 mm (21"—36").
			Below disintegrated murum.				

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TABLE No. 5.

TYPICAL PROFILE OF MEDIUM DEEP SOIL

Profile No. 4.

Village: Tasgaon, Taluka: Tasgaon, District: Sangli.

Relief: Undulating.
Drainage: Well drained.
Slope: 1 to 3 per cent.

Sub-soil water table: 30 ft.
Land use: Cultivated land.
Surface condition: Moderately stoney.

Horizon (1)	Thickness (2)	Colour (3)	Texture (4)	Structure (5)	Consistency (6)	Miscellaneous concretions, roots, moisture, etc. (7)	Sample depth, [illegible] (8)
I ..	203·2 mm (8″) ..	Reddish dark brown.	Clayey ..	Granular ..	Loose ..	Moist, very few concretions, roots present.	0—203·2 mm (0″—8″).
II .	228·6 mm (9″) ..	Dark brown	Clayey .	Blocky ..	Slightly compact	Few concretions ..	203·2—431·8 mm (8″—17″).
III ..	203·2 mm (8½″) ..	Dark brown	Clayey ..	Blocky ..	Slightly compact	Few sand particles and lime nodules.	431·8—635 mm (17″—25½″).
			Below disintegrated murum.				

TABLE No. 6.

TYPICAL PROFILE OF DEEP SOIL

Profile No. 5.

Village: Sangliwadi. Taluka: Miraj, District: Sangli.

Relief: Flat land. Land use: Cultivated land.
Drainage: Well drained. Sub-soil water table: 30 ft.
Slope: 0.05 per cent. Erosion: Slightly eroded.
General remarks: Under *kharif* jowar and tobacco. Surface condition: Few cracks.

Horizon (1)	Thickness (2)	Colour (3)	Texture (4)	Structure (5)	Consistency (6)	Miscellaneous concretions, roots, moisture, etc. (7)	Sample depth (8)
I ..	228·6 mm (9"). ..	Very dark brown	Clayey ..	Blocky ..	Slightly compact	Roots present, dry ..	0—228·6 mm (0"—9").
II ..	177·8 mm (7"). ..	Very dark brown	Clayey ..	Blocky ..	Compact ..	Few sand particles ..	228·6—406·4 mm (9"—16").
III ..	609·6 mm (24") ..	Very dark brown	Clayey ..	Blocky ..	Hard and compact	Few sand particles ..	406·4—711.2 mm (16"—28") 711·2—1016 mm (28"—40")
IV ..	431·8 mm (17") ..	Dark brown ..	Clayey loam ..	Blocky ..	Hard and compact.	Full of sand particles ..	1016—1447·8 mm (40"—57")
			Below sand layer.				

TABLE No. 7

TYPICAL PROFILE OF SALINE-ALKALINE SOIL

Profile No. 6.

Village: Jath. Taluka: Jath, District: Sangli.

Relief: Relatively level to undulating.
Drainage: Moderately well drained.
Sub-soil water table: 35 ft.
Slope: 1 to 3 per cent..

Land use: Cultivated.
Erosion: Slightly eroded.
Surface condition: Full of lime nodules and black concretions.

Horizon (1)	Thickness (2)	Colour (3)	Texture (4)	Structure (5)	Consistency (6)	Miscellaneous concretions, roots, moisture, etc. (7)	Sample depth (8)
I ..	203·2 mm (8″). ..	Dark brown ..	Sandy-loam ..	Blocky ..	Friable .	Profused lime nodules throughout profile visible.	0—203·2 mm (0″—8″).
II ..	330·2 mm (13″). ..	Gray brown ..	Loam ..	Blocky ..	Dry and hard ..	..	203·2—533·4 mm (8″—21″).
III ..	254 mm (10″). ..	Yellowish brown	Clayey ..	Blocky ..	Friable ..	..	533·4—787·4 mm (21″—31″).
IV ..	431·8 mm (17″). ..	Yellowish brown	Sandy clay loam	Blocky ..	Friable ..	..	787·4—1219·2 mm (31″—48″).
.			Same layer continued below.				

TABLE No. 8.

ANALYTICAL DATA OF THE SOILS OF SANGLI DISTRICT.

Profile No.	Depth of the soil sample	Mechanical Analysis on air dry basis							PH
		Calcium carbonate %	Organic matter %	Moisture %	Coarse sand %	Fine sand %	Silt %	Clay %	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
1	0″—8″	3·4	0·67	..	..	..	17·00	36·50	8·70
2	0″—10″	9·3	0·78	..	..	..	18·00	8·00	8·55
3	0″—9″	9·5	0·91	..	..	..	5·25	46·75	8·63
	9″—21″	3·8	..	..	..	..	9·75	32·25	8·69
	21″—36″	6·3	..	..	..	..	3·75	28·50	8·69
4	0″—8″	3·7	1·01	..	..	..	11·25	57·75	8·31
	8″—17″	3·3	..	..	..	..	13·75	63·25	8·16
	17″—25½″	3·9	..	..	..	..	7·25	63·75	8·11
5	0″—9″	3·9	0·84	..	..	..	14·00	57·25	7·73
	9″—16″	3·0	..	..	..	..	12·50	57·25	7·83
	16″—28″	3·0	..	..	..	..	9·50	56·25	8·11
	28″—40″	3·0	..	..	..	..	16·25	51·75	8·11
	40″—57″	3·3	..	..	..	..	19·25	32·00	8·11
6	0″—8″	9·0	..	..	..	..	16.25	14·00	9·11
	8″—21″	8·2	..	..	..	..	[illegible]	25·50	9·18
	21″—31″	8·6	..	..	..	..	28·00	41·50	9·08
	31″—48″	7·4	..	..	..	..	36·25	28·00	8·69

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SOILS.

TABLE No. 8—*contd.*

Profile No.	Depth of the soil sample	Total soluble salts %	Exchangeable bases			Total	Available		Total Nitrogen per cent
			Ex Ca me %	Ex Mg. me %	Ex Na K me %		P_2O_5 mgm %	Av. K_2O mgm %	
(1)	(2)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)
1	0″—8″	0·25	46·00	3·00	2·50	51·50	14·28	..	0·034
2	0″—10″	0·24	22·50	3·00	2·00	27·50	3·33	..	0·046
3	0″—9″	0·25	47·50	3·50	2·00	53·00	16·00	Trace ..	0·056
	9″—21″	0·28	46·00	3·50	2·50	52·00	..	..	..
	21″—36″	0·26	42·00	4·00	2·50	48·50	..	..	..
4	0″—8″	0·42	69·00	12·00	3·00	84·00	9·96	Trace ..	0·062
	8″—17″	0·42	75·50	11·50	3·00	90·00	..	..	..
	17″—25½″	0·45	67·00	12·00	2·50	81·50	..	..	..
5	0″—9″	0·30	37·50	13·50	4·00	55·00	13·50	Trace ..	0·041
	9″—16″	0·24	35·00	13·00	5·00	53·00	..	..	..
	16″—28″	0·25	32·50	14·00	6·00	52·50	..	..	..
	28″—40″	0·30	27·50	15·00	7·00	49·50	..	..	..
	40″—57″	0·40	21·00	14·50	6·50	42·00	..	..	..
6	0″—8″	0·26	44·50	2·50	7·00	54·00	Trace	Trace	..
	8″—21″	0·42	39·50	6·00	9·50	55·00	..	..	..
	21″—31″	0·65	40·50	10·50	13·50	64·50	..	..	..
	31″—48″	0·84	39·00	11·00	12·00	62·00	..	..	..

SOILS.

Laterite Soil.

Laterite soils occur on up-ghats in the extreme western portion of the district in Shirala Peta, which receives very high rainfall. These soils are slightly acidic and usually leach total soluble salts and calcium carbonate. Their total exchangeable capacity is low. The soils are poor in fertility and are mainly suitable for rice and hill millets.

Reddish-brown Soil.

These soils are found on hill slopes and in undulating area in the heavy rainfall region of the district. These soils which are residual and developed from the parent material of trap rock, are usually structureless, reddish brown in colour and sandy loam in texture. Soil reaction is neutral with low contents of total soluble salts and calcium carbonate. Due to adverse topographical conditions, these soils have limited depth and are poor in fertility.

Deep-black soil.

Deep black soils of Krishna valley occur particularly in the areas having assured rainfall. These soils have good physical condition, very dark brown colour, clayey texture and granular to crumb structure. Soils are moderately alkaline (PH 7.73 to 8.11) and are moderate in contents of total soluble salts (0.24 to 0.40%) and calcium carbonate (3 to 3.9%). Total exchangeable capacity of these soils is moderately high (42 to 55 m.e. per cent). Soils are fair in nitrogen (0.041%) and very poor in phosphate and potash contents.

Medium-deep soil.

These soils occur in the areas of the district where the rainfall is low. They have reddish brown colour, clayey texture and granular to blocky structure. Soil reaction is moderately high (towards alkaline) (PH 8.11 to 8.69). Total soluble salts (0.25 to 0.45%) and calcium carbonate (3.3 to 6.5%) contents are moderate. Total exchangeable capacity of these soils shows wide variations (48.50 to 90 m.e. per cent). High exchangeable capacity (profile No. 4) indicates high inherent fertility of these soils. Nitrogen contents in these soils are fairly high (0.056 to 0.062%) but contents of available phosphate (9.96 to 16 mgm.%) and available potash (traces) are poor.

Shallow soil.

Shallow soils occur in the eastern taluka of Jath. These are light brown to reddish brown in colour, loamy sands to sandy clay in texture and are usually structureless. Soil reaction of them is high (PH 8.55 to 8.70) but contents of total soluble salts (0.21 to 0.45%) and calcium carbonate (3.4 to 9.3%) are moderate. Soils show wide variations in total exchangeable capacity (27.50 to 51.50 m.e. per cent), have moderate nitrogen contents (0.034 to 0.046%) but are poor in available phosphate (3.33 to 14.28 mgm. per cent) and potash (traces).

Saline-alkaline soil.

Deep soils from the low rainfall areas, unless properly managed, develop saline-alkaline conditions. A soil profile examined at Jath showed dark brown colour, sandy loam texture and blocky structure. Soil reaction is strongly alkaline (PH 8.69 to 9.18). Total soluble salts (0.26 to 0.84%) are high, and they show an increase in the lower layers of the soils. Soils are moderate in calcium carbonate (7.4 to 9%). Total exchangeable capacity is 54 to 64.50 m.e. per cent and is dominating sodium. Sodium

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SOILS.

Saline-alkaline soil.

saturation is very high indicating thereby the deteriorated conditions of these soils. Soils are poor in plant nutrients unless reclamation measures are adopted. Normal yields of crops are not obtained.

LAND UTILISATION.

The district is hilly in the west and south. Fertile valleys of fine black and reddish sandy soil lie between hills in the south. The river Krishna and its tributaries Varna, Yerala and Agrani are the important rivers in the district. The district may be divided broadly into (1) the Varna basin with adjoining hills, (2) the Krishna basin, (3) the Yerala basin and (4) the eastern plateaus. In the Varna basin the rainfall is heaviest. The major portion of the basin is covered with forest. The Krishna valley is the most fertile part of the district, while the plateaus of the eastern part which consist of the Khanapur and the Jath plateaus are less wooded and barren. However, on the whole agriculture is the main component in the land utilisation. Table No. 9 gives the statistics of land utilisation in the district in 1961-62.

TABLE No. 9.

TALUKAWISE CULTIVATED AND UNCULTIVATED AREA IN SANGLI DISTRICT, 1956-57 TO 1961-62.

(Area in hectares and acres)

Taluka	Year	Total geographical area	Gross cropped area	Area cropped more than once	Net area sown	Current fallows	Barren and uncultivated area	Land put to non-agricultural uses	Miscellaneous groves, permanent pastures, other grazing lands	Culturable waste
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
Miraj ..	1956-57	163,229·288	132,011·406	2,380·768	129,630·638	..	7,588·672	103·600	8,588·651	1,819·873
		403,348	326,207	5,883	320,324	..	18,752	256	21,223	4,497
	1957-58	163,229·288	133,069 660	1,984·985	131,084·675	420·468	2,252·077	522·854	11,594·254	1,827·966
		403,348	328,822	4,905	323,917	1,039	5,565	1,292	28,650	4,517
	1958-59	163,236·573	134,931·215	2,264·218	132,666 997	768·903	22,286·058	529·329	12,728·184	1,828·371
		403,366	333,422	5,595	327,827	1,900	55,070	1,308	31,452	4,518
	1959-60	163,236·573	135,663·697	2,622·770	133,040·927	91·864	7,590·290	104·409	12,614·467	1,407·093
		403,366	335,232	6,481	328,751	227	18,756	258	31,171	3,477
	1960-61	163,236·573	137,357·712	6,419·939	130,937·774	..	7,059·747	530·138	8,567·607	1,611·055
		403,366	339,418	15,864	323,554	..	17,445	1,310	21,171	3,981
	1961-62	163,286·754	134,457·733	2,485·986	131,971·746	..	10,018·811	562·109	4,921·791	1,596·081
		403,490	332,252	6,143	326,109	..	24,757	1,389	12,162	3,944

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TABLE No. 9—*contd.*

(Area in hectares and acres)

Taluka	Year	Total geographical area	Gross cropped area	Area cropped more than once	Net area sown	Current fallows	Barren and uncultivated area	Land put to non-agricultural uses	Miscellaneous groves, permanent pastures, other grazing lands	Culturable waste
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
Shirala ..	1956-57	63,504·945 156,924	47,381·041 117,081	2,755·911 6,810	44,625·130 110,271	.. ..	2,856·678 7,059	2·428 6	1,476·294 3,648	1,191·800 2,945
	1957-58	63,504·945 156,924	47,513·778 117,409	2,983·750 7,373	44,530·028 110,036	.. ..	2,856·678 7,059	2·428 6	1,476·294 3,648	1,191·800 2,945
	1958-59	63,504·945 156,924	47,710·456 117,895	3,065·496 7,575	44,644·959 110,320	.. ..	2,855·869 7,057	2·428 6	1,477·104 3,650	1,191·800 2,945
	1959-60	63,492·805 156,894	48,780·850 120,540	4,121·727 10,185	44,659·123 110,355	.. ..	2,814·591 6,955	2·428 6	1,477·104 3,650	1,193·419 2,949
	1960-61	63,492·805 156,894	48,682·916 120,298	4,022·578 9,940	44,660·337 110,358	.. ..	2,814·591 6,955	2·428 6	1,477·104 3,650	1,191·800 2,945
	1961-62	63,492·805 156,894	48,794·609 120,574	4,748·990 11,735	44,045·619 108,839	.. ..	2,900·384 7,167	4·046 10	1,477·104 3,650	1,724·367 4,261
Khanapur .	1956-57	220,166·585 544,043	158,250·032 391,044	6,983·261 17,256	151,266·770 373,788	1,800·853 4,450	12,286·671 30,361	46·134 114	7,669·843 19,002	1,379·170 3,408
	1957-58	220,178·726 544,073	159,328·520 393,709	7,249·545 17,914	152,078·975 375,795	1,144·047 2,827	13,406·438 33,128	46·134 114	4,290·076 10,601	1,379·170 3,40[illegible]

	1958-59	219,776·063 543,078	155,998·359 385,480	8,555·062 21,140	147,443·297 364,340	4,039·575 9,982	14,519·729 35,879	36·421 90	3,260·960 8,058	1,379·170 3,408
	1959-60	219,776·063 543,078	156,640·596 387,067	7,734·763 19,113	148,905·832 367,954	3,003·175 7,421	14,519·729 35,879	40·064 99	3,260·960 8,058	1,379·170 3,408
	1960-61	219,776·872 543,080	158,062·662 390,581	7,574·508 18,717	150,488·155 371,864	4,044·432 9,994	14,519·729 35,879	40·064 99	3,260·960 8,058	1,419·234 3,507
	1961-62	219,776·872 543,080	183,814·451 454,215	7,457·553 18,428	176,356·898 435,787	3,961·876 9,790	14,519·729 35,879	40·064 99	3,260·960 8,058	1,415·187 3,497
Jath ..	1956-57	224,687·737 555,215	165,915·190 409,985	2,506·220 6,193	163,408·969 403,792	3,393·696 8,386	6,224·880 15,382	157·423 389	5,921·770 14,633	509·500 1,259
	1957-58	224,687·737 555,215	163,156·040 403,167	1,046·922 2,587	162,109·118 400,580	2,579·468 6,374	8,252·761 20,393	316·464 782	5,921·770 14,633	437·061 1,080
	1958-59	224,691·380 555,224	168,236·468 415,721	2,546·689 6,293	165,689·780 409,428	1,189·372 2,939	6,224·880 15,382	157·423 389	5,921·770 14,633	437·061 1,080
	1959-60	224,693·403 555,229	167,141·388 413,015	2,737·700 6,765	164,403·687 406,250	.. ..	6,225·284 15,383	157·423 389	5,921·770 14,633	510·309 1,261
	1960-61	224,693·403 555,229	165,414·998 408,749	1,776·167 4,389	163,638·831 403,360	.. ..	6,225·284 15,383	157·423 389	5,921·770 14,633	510·309 1,261
	1961-62	224,688·951 555,218	167,284·647 413,369	3,802·025 9,395	163,482·622 403,974	.. ..	6,228·927 15,392	157·423 389	5,979·640 14,776	510·309 1,261
Walwa ..	1956-57	78,700·500 194,473	66,558·301 164,469	927·135 2,291	65,631·166 162,178	.. ..	7,219·598 17,840	102·385 253	258·189 638	.. ..
	1957-58	78,700·500 194,473	66,965·820 165,476	1,290·543 3,189	65,675·277 162,287	.. ..	7,321·579 18,092	143·663 355	258·189 638	.. ..

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TABLE No. 9—*contd.*

(Area in hectares and acres)

Taluka	Year	Total geographical area	Gross cropped area	Area cropped more than once	Net area sown	Current fallows	Barren and uncultivated area	Land put to non-agricultural uses	Miscellaneous groves, permanent pastures, other grazing lands	Culturable waste
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
	1958-59	78,700·905 194,474	66,673·637 164,754	1,430·970 3,536	65,242·667 161,218	.. ..	7,321·579 18,092	112·098 277	258·189 638	.. ..
	1959-60	78,700·905 194,474	66,050·421 163,214	1,371·076 3,388	64,679·344 159,826	..	7,321·579 18,092	112·098 277	258·189 638	.. ..
	1960-61	78,667·316 194,391	65,740·431 162,448	1,247·242 3,082	64,493·189 159,366	.. ..	7,295·679 18,028	.. ..	258·189 638	.. ..
	1961-62	78,667·316 194,391	65,586·246 162,067	1,454·036 3,593	64,132·209 158,474	.. ..	7,295·679 18,028	45·729 113	258·189 638	.. ..
Tasgaon ..	1956-57	111,150·652 274,659	87,145·488 215,341	1,753·909 4,334	85,391·579 211,007	29·137 72	2,991·439 7,392	4,687·882 11,584	1,677·828 4,146	10,236·127 25,294
	1957-58	111,150·652 274,659	91,617·268 226,391	1,559·660 3,854	90,057·608 222,537	137·188 339	2,991·439 7,392	4,688·692 11,586	3,296·977 8,147	2,152·525 5,319
	1958-59	111,151·866 274,662	93,932·881 232,113	1,485·602 3,671	92,447·279 228,442	2,115·698 5,228	5,046·839 12,471	32·779 81	3,836·018 9,479	1,564·516 3,866
	1959-60	111,151·866 274,662	94,384·106 233,228	4,344·304 10,735	90,039·802 222,493	6,673·272 16,490	5,046·839 12,471	33·184 82	415·208 1,026	3,080·874 7,613

	1960-61	111,151·866 274,662	92,505·554 228,586	4,845·305 11,973	87,660·248 216,613	2,820·661 6,970	4,964·283 12,267	69·201 171	1,332·631 3,293	3,320·044 8,204
	1961-62	111,151·866 274,662	91,718·844 226,642	4,818·191 11,906	86,900·653 214,736	2,830·778 6,995	4,964·283 12,267	69·201 171	1,332·631 3,293	3,320·044 8,204
District* Total ..	1956-57	861,439·710 (2,128,662)	657,261·459 (1,624.127)	17,307·206 (42.767)	639.954·253 (1,581.360)	52.23·687 (12,908)	39,167·939 (96,786)	5,099·853 (12,602)	25,612·577 (63,290)	15,136·470 (37,403)
..	1957-58	861 451·850 (2,128,692)	661.651·088 (1,634,974)	16,115·406 (39,822)	645,535·682 (1,595,152)	4.281·173 (10.579)	37,080·973 (91,629)	5,720·236 (14,135)	26,837·561 (66,317)	6,988·522 (17,269)
	1958-59	861.061·733 (2,127,728)	667,483·018 (1,649,385)	19,348·037 (47.810)	648,134·980 (1,601,575)	8,113·550 (20,049)	58,254·954 (143,951)	870·479 (2,151)	27,482·226 (67,910)	6,400·918 (15,817)
	1959-60	861,051·616 (2,127,703)	668,661·463 (1,652,297)	22,932·341 (56,667)	645,728·717 (1,595,629)	9,768·310 (24,138)	43,518·313 (107,536)	449·606 (1,111)	23,947·698 (59,176)	7,570·865 (18,708)
	1960-61	861,018·836 (2,127,622)	667,764·275 (1,650,080)	25,885·740 (63,965)	641,878·535 (1,586,115)	6,865·093 (16,964)	42,879·314 (105,957)	799 255 (1,975)	20,818·261 (51,443)	8,052·442 (19,898)
	1961-62	861,064·566 (2,127.735)	691.656·531 (1,709,119)	24,766·783 (61,200)	666,889·748 (1,647,919)	6,792·654 (16,785)	45,927·814 (113,490)	878·573 (2,171)	17,230·316 (42,577)	8,565·988 (21,167)

* Figures in brackets for district total show area in acres.

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LAND UTILISATION.

The land under cultivation in the district falls under two heads *jirayat* and *bagayat*. Of these *jirayat* covers the major portion of the total cultivated land. The land under *jirayat* is cultivated only once in the monsoon while the *bagayat* land is cropped with the help of irrigation. The main food crops are jowar, bajra, etc., among cereals, gram and *tur* among pulses; and turmeric, fruits, vegetables, sugarcane, condiments and spices.

Forest Area

Of the 324.941 km² (125.46 sq. miles) of reserved forests, 80.35 sq. miles are in charge of the Revenue department, while the rest, i.e., 116.835 km² (45.11 sq. miles), lying in Walwa, Tasgaon, Khanapur, Jath and Shirala talukas, are in charge of the Forest department. Neither *kumri* cultivation is followed in the forests in charge of the Forest department nor is land cleared for cultivation. However, about 412.779 hectares (1,020 acres) of land have been illicitly cleared by the villagers for unauthorised cultivation. Though there is no desert in the district, the open and denuded hills, about 105.218 hectares (260 acres) in charge of the Forest department are being afforested.

In Sangli district, the well-clad hills with moist deciduous forests, and with trees of economical importance such as teak, *ain*, *dhaora*, *jamun*, *pisa*, *anjan* and *hirda*, are found only in Shirala mahal. The main ridge of western ghats and the hill slopes grow semi-evergreen forests and are not exploited due to inaccessibility. The accessible forests are exploited scientifically under the provisions of a working plan and the prescriptions of Teak Timber Working Circle and Main Working Circle. These forests are also being gradually developed under the successive Five-Year Plan Schemes by raising teak, bamboo and *kaju* plantations.

TABLE No. 10.

TALUKAWISE DISTRIBUTION OF FOREST AREA IN SANGLI DISTRICT, 1961-62.

(Area in hectares)*

Range	Taluka (whole or part) included in the range	Forest in charge of Forest Department		Forest in charge of Revenue Department		Total		Other Forests
		Reserved	Protected	Reserved	Protected	Reserved	Protected	Incharge of Forest Department
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Karad ..	.. Walwa, Tasgaon, Khanapur, Shirala peta.	4,924·782 (12,169-39)	21·497 (53-12)	..	..	4,924·782 (12,169-39)	21·497 (53-12)	(1) Unclosed forest 41 2·73 (1,020-23).
Dhebewadi	.. Shirala peta	11,540·042 (28,516-04)	..	..	..	11,540·042 (28,516-04)	..	(2) Leased forest 142·449 (352-00)
Jath Round	.. Jath	..	..	..	..	..	..	(3) Unclosed forest, 11,252·023 (27,804-33)
..	..	..	..	2,195·972 (5,426-36)	..	2,195·972 (5,426-36)		
	Total ..	16,465·067 (40,686-03)	21·497 (53-12)	2,195·972 (5,426-36)	..	18,661·039 (46,112-39)	21,497 (53-12)	11,897·588 (29,177-16)

* Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

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LAND UTILISATION.

Forest Produce.

TABLE No. 11.

STATEMENT REGARDING OUTTURNS AND REALISATION OF VALUE OF THE FOREST PRODUCE IN SANGLI DISTRICT, 1961-62.

Taluka	Timber and firewood		Taluka	Minor forest produce and their value in Rupees				
	Outturn in C.ft	Value in Rupees		Grass	Hirda	Shikekai	Shembati bark	Pisa seeds
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
		Rs.		Rs.	Rs.	Rs	Rs.	Rs.
Shirala	8 831·84	16,131·73	Shirala	3,295	800	500	25	15
			Kharapur	235	..	..	..	..
Total ..	8,831 84	16,131·73	Total ..	3,530	800	500	25	15

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HOLDINGS.

Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings Act, 1947.

The district is not an exception to the general experience as to the low productivity of agriculture due to the scattered fragments of land. In fact, amongst many others, fragmentation of land, owing to the pressure of population on land and customary laws of inheritance, has been a hindrance to agricultural progress. The fragmented holdings prevent economic and profitable cultivation of land. These fragments are not only small but are normally scattered in different directions. This involves a great deal of waste of time and labour in moving the bullocks and implements from one plot to another, prevents a careful watch over the crops in the scattered holdings and creates disputes regarding boundaries leading to ill-feeling and litigation. Moreover it obstructs and makes it difficult for the farmer to carry on the work of large improvements on land. This results in the decline of the productivity of agriculture.

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HOLDINGS.

Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings Act, 1947.

TABLE No. 12.

QUINQUENNIAL STATEMENT OF HOLDINGS IN GOVERNMENT RAYATWARI AREA IN SHIRALA TALUKA IN SANGLI DISTRICT.

Magnitude Groups	1 Class A			2 Class B			3 Class C			Total	
	No. of persons	Area held in hectares *		No. of persons	Area held in hectares		No. of persons	Area held in hectares		No. of persons	Area held in hectares
		Khalsa	Inam		Khalsa	Inam		Khalsa	Inam		
(1) Upto 5 acres	12,975	10,766·820 (26,605-37)	536·747 (1,326-33)	..	.	..	..	..	..	12,975	11,303·810 (27,932-30)
(2) Over 5 acres and upto 15 acres.	4,717	15,398·788 (38,051-20)	360·636 (891-15)	..	..	..	..	..	..	4,717	15,759·424 (38,942-35)
(3) Over 15 acres and upto 25 acres.	1,132	7,957·887 (19,664-35)	164·56 (406-38)	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,132	8,122·586 (20,071-33)
(4) Over 25 acres and upto 100 acres.	562	8,152·545 (20,145-36)	171·251 (423-17)	..		..	..	..	..	562	8,324·039 (20,569-13)
(5) Over 100 acres and upto 500 acres.	18	793·318 (1960-33)	·510 (1-26)	..	..	..	..	..	..	18	794·071 (1962-19)
(6) Over 500 acres ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total ..	19,404	43,070·330 (106,429-01)	1,234·328 (3,050-09)	..	..	..	..	..	..	19,404	44,304·659 (109,479-10)

1. Covers persons who cultivate land themselves with or without the help of hired labour.
2. Covers persons who do not cultivate land themselves, but supervise and direct cultivation by labourers or farm servants.
3. Covers persons who receive rent, but do not directly or indirectly take part in cultivation.
* Figures in brackets show area in acres.

TABLE No. 13.

QUINQUENNIAL STATEMENT OF HOLDINGS IN GOVERNMENT RAYATWARI AREA IN TASGAON TALUKA IN SANGLI DISTRICT.

Magnitude Groups	Class A[1]			Class B[2]			Class C[3]			Total	
	No. of persons	Area held in hectares*		No. of persons	Area held in hectares		No. of persons	Area held in hectares		No. of persons	Area held in hectares
		Khalsa	Inam		Khalsa	Inam		Khalsa	Inam		
(1) Up to 5 acres	22,043	20,449·742 (50,532-37)	1,291·009 (3,190-15)	75	81·030 (200-23)	28·732 (71-00)	916	1,032·855 (2,552-24)	84·296 (208-30)	23,034	22,968·395 (56,756-09)
(2) Over 5 acres and up to 15 acres.	10,887	33,572·066 (82,958-31)	1,236·862 (3,056-35)	20	67·716 (167-33)	5·261 (13-00)	359	967·215 (2,390-04)	132·773 (328-09)	11,266	35,982·380 (88,914-32)
(3) Over 15 acres and up to 25 acres.	2,354	16,653·241 (41,151-02)	672·325 (1,661-35)	15	111·693 (276-00)	10·117 (25-00)	122	546·018 (1,349-24)	147·034 (363-33)	2,491	18,140·916 (44,827-14)
(4) Over 25 acres and up to 100 acres.	1,207	15,458·248 (38,198-13)	1,484·918 (3,669-31)	4	50·598 (125-03)	1·748 (4-32)	41	562·598 (1,390-21)	76·085 (186-01)	1,252	17,634·682 (43,578-21)
(5) Over 100 acres and up to 500 acres.	10	539·572 (1,333-31)	..	1	82·568 (204-03)	..	..	..	..	11	622·140 (1,537-34)
(6) Over 500 acres ..	..	..	.	..	..	..	1	203·306 (502-38)	..	1	203·306 (502-38)
Total ..	36,501	86,673·357 (214,174-34)	4,685·600 (11,578-36)	115	393·848 (973-22)	45·859 (113-32)	1,439	3,312·480 (8,185-31)	440·432 (1,088-33)	38055	95,552·548 (236,115-28)

1. Covers persons who cultivate land themselves with or without the help of hired labour.
2. Covers persons who do not cultivate land themselves, but supervise and direct cultivation by labourers or farm servants.
3. Covers persons who receive rent, but do not directly or indirectly take part in cultivation.
* Figures in brackets show area in acres.

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TABLE No. 14.

QUINQUENNIAL STATEMENT OF HOLDINGS IN GOVERNMENT RAYATWARI AREA IN MIRAJ TALUKA IN SANGLI DISTRICT.

Magnitude Groups	1 Class A			2 Class B			3 Class C			Total	
	No. of Persons	Area held in hectares*		No. of Persons	Area held in hectares		No. of Persons	Area held in hectares		No. of Persons	Area held in hectares
		Khalsa	Inam		Khalsa	Inam		Khalsa	Inam		
(1) Up to 5 acres	21,240	23,007·244 (56,852-9¾)	1,249 670 (3,088-¼)	284	351·737 (869-16½)	·420 (1-04)	1,564	2,202·325 (5,442-06)	103·284 (255-22)	23,088	26,914·929 (66,508-18½)
(2) Over 5 acres and up to 15 acres.	12,481	41,348 844 (102,175-13)	1,327 002 (3,279-09)	251	1,005·798 (2,485-38)	15·807 (39-06)	767	2,436 687 (6,021·18)	112·595 (278-23)	12,509	46,247·220 (114.279-27)
(3) Over 15 acres and up to 25 acres.	3,019	21,977 363 (54,307-20)	447·210 (1,105-08)	65	522·575 (1,291-31)	..	180	1,183·710 (2,925-01)	36·045 (89-07)	3,264	24,167·148 (59,718-27)
(4) Over 25 acres and up to 100 acres.	1,638	22,823 926 (56,399-10)	200 844 (495-06)	24	216·543 (535-09)	.	64	1,045 425 (2,583-30)	43 455 (107-38)	1,726	24.330·179 (60,121-13)
(5) Over 100 acres and up to 500 acres.	18	921·899 (2,278-06)	..	2	163·493 (404-00)	..	4	179·385 (443-27)	..	24	1,264·777 (3,125-33)
(6) Over 500 acres ..	2	880·341 (2,175-37)	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	880·341 (2,175-37)
Total ..	38,398	110,960·105 (274,188-1¾)	3,224·226 (7,967-23¼)	636	2,260·632 (5,586-14½)	16·228 (40-10)	2,579	7,048·019 (17,416-02)	295·866 (731-10)	40,613	123,805·325 (305,929-35½)

[1]. Covers persons who cultivate land themselves with or without the help of hired labour.
[2]. Covers persons who do not cultivate land themselves, but supervise and direct cultivation by labourers or farm servants.
[3]. Covers persons who receive rent, but do not directly or indirectly take part in cultivation.
*Figures in brackets show area in acres.

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TABLE No. 15.

QUINQUENNIAL STATEMENT OF HOLDINGS IN GOVERNMENT RAYATWARI AREA IN KHANAPUR TALUKA IN SANGLI DISTRICT.

Magnitude Groups	1 Class A			2 Class B			3 Class C			Total	
	No. of persons	Area held in hectares*		No. of persons	Area held in hectares		No. of persons	Area held in hectares		No. of persons	Area held in hectares
		Khalsa	Inam		Khalsa	Inam		Khalsa	Inam		
(1) Up to 5 acres	23,328	32,275·833 (79,755·25)	563·404 (1,392-20)	84	189·886 (469-22)	1·631 (4-03)	1,665	2,265·994 (5,599-39)	159·851 (395-00)	25,007	35,457·086 (87,616·29)
(2) Over 5 acres and up to 15 acres.	14,098	46,751·406 (1,15,525-14)	704·619 (1,741-15)	55	460·577 (1,138-11)	..	836	2,689·632 (6,646-22)	272·879 (674-30)	14,989	50,879·600 (1,25,726-12)
(3) Over 15 acres and up to 25 acres.	5,025	38,314·104 (94,676-13)	665·332 (1,644-07)	25	277·287 (685-19)	..	327	2,018·266 (4,987-24)	189·478 (468-21)	5,377	41,464·953 (1,02,462-04)
(4) Over 25 acres and up to 100 acres.	3,610	54,079·501 (1,33,633-24)	523·700 (1,294-09)	7	91·548 (226-22)	..	89	1,074·081 (2,654-11)	249·404 (616-29)	3,706	56,018·720 (1,38,425-15)
(5) Over 100 acres and up to 500 acres.	72	4,680·238 (11,565-11)	8·547 (21-12)	2	84·984 (210-00)	..	2	99·277 (245-32)	..	76	4,873·289 (12,042-15)
(6) Over 500 acres ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total .	46,133	176,101·569 (4,35,156-07)	2,465·845 (6,093-23)	173	1,104·525 (2,729-34)	1·631 (4-03)	2,919	8,147·980 (20,134-08)	872·098 (2,155-00)	49,225	188,693·892 (4,66,272-35)

1. Covers persons who cultivate land themselves with or without the help of hired labour.
2. Covers persons who do not cultivate land themselves but supervise and direct cultivation by labourers or farm servants.
3. Covers persons who receive rent, but do not directly or indirectly take part in cultivation.
*Figures in brackets show area in acres.

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TABLE No. 16.

QUINQUENNIAL STATEMENT OF HOLDINGS IN GOVERNMENT RAYATWARI AREA IN JATH TALUKA IN SANGLI DISTRICT.

Magnitude Groups	Class A [1]			Class B [2]			Class C [3]			Total	
	No. of persons	Area held in hectares *		No. of persons	Area held in hectares		No. of persons	Area held in hectares		No. of persons	Area held in hectares
		Khalsa	Inam		Khalsa	Inam		Khalsa	Inam		
(1) Up to 5 acres .. .	6,220	9,256·022 (22,872-11)	492·600 (1,217-24)	276	162·809 (402-31)	8·134 (20-10)	488	656·408 (1622-02)	28 433 (70-26)	6,984	10,604 893 (26,205-24)
(2) Over 5 acres and up to 15 acres.	7,591	29,907·137 (73,902-08)	721·203 (1,782-13)	366	1,399·950 (3,459-35)	15·430 (38-13)	712	2,649·900 (6,548-04)	151·506 (374-38)	8,669	34,845·613 (86,105-31)
(3) Over 15 acres and up to 25 acres.	4,361	33,074·590 (81,729-02)	962·776 (2,379-07)	248	966·819 (2,389-06)	49·853 (123-19)	620	5,933·987 (14,663-19)	181·028 (447-33)	5,229	41,169·540 (101,737-06)
(4) Over 25 acres and up to 100 acres.	5,521	83,317·980 (205,883-03)	1,708·657 (4,222-18)	140	1,202·006 (2,970-22)	40·468 (100-00)	714	9,505·078 (23,490-01)	286·651 (708-33)	6,375	96,062·084 (237,374-37)
(5) Over 100 acres and up to 500 acres.	201	112,43·848 (27,784-13)	334·396 (826-31)	2	80·937 (200-00)	..	36	1,629·788 4,027-29)	..	239	132,89·212 (32,838-33)
(6) Over 500 acres ..	3	731·275 (1807-02)	..	..	..	..	1	235·580 (582-13)	..	4	966·855 (2,389-15)
Total ..	23,897	167,530·854 (413,977-39)	4,220·118 (10,428-13)	1,032	3,813·008 (9,422-14)	114·129 (282-02)	2,571	20,611·985 (50,933-28)	648·347 (1,602-10)	27,500	196,938·928 (486,646-26)

1 Covers persons who cultivate land themselves with or without the help of hired labour.
2. Covers persons who do not cultivate land themselves, but supervise and direct cultivation by labourers or farm servants.
3. Covers persons who receive rent, but do not directly or indirectly take part in cultivation.
* Figures in brackets show area in acres.

TABLE No. 17.

QUINQUENNIAL STATEMENT OF HOLDINGS IN GOVERNMENT RAYATWARI AREA IN WALWA TALUKA IN SANGLI DISTRICT.

Magnitude Groups	1 Class A			2 Class B			3 Class C			Total	
	No. of persons	Area held in hectares		No. of persons	Area held in hectares		No. of persons	Area held in hectres		No. of persons	Area held in hectares
		Khalsa	Inam		Khalsa	Inam		Khalsa	Inam		
(1) Up to 5 acres	25,930	25,588·336 (63,230-10)	967·203 (2,390-01)	54	99·625 (246-18)	3·274 (8-09)	2,289	1,891·976 (4,675-17)	115·436 (285-25)	28,273	28,666·337 (70,836-00)
(2) Over 5 acres and upto 15 acres.	7,939	20,484·954 (50,619-38)	364·286 (900-17)	20	59·152 (146-17)	3·650 (9-02)	659	2,015·449 (4,980-28)	86·348 (213-37)	8,618	23,014·569 (56,870-19)
(3) Over 15 acres and upto 25 acres.	1,403	7,719·867 (19,076-19)	129·095 (319-00)	1	6 879 (17-00)	..	71	447·182 (1,105-01)	3·237 (8-00)	14,75	8,306·261 (20,525-20)
(4) Over 25 acres and upto 100 acres.	889	4,716·352 (11,654-35)	106·991 (264-38)	5	110·883 (274-00)	..	21	312·013 (771-00)	..	915	5,246·483 (12,964-33
(5) Over 100 acres and upto 500 acres.	3	261·832 (647-00)	..	..	..	..	3	1,53·780 (380-00)	71·224 (176-00)	6	486·837 (1,203-00)
(6) Over 500 acres ..	1	412·779 (1,020-00)	4·046 (10-00)	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	416·826 (1,030-00)
Total ..	36,165	59,184·607 (1,46,248-22	1,571·865 (3,884-16)	80	276·542 (683-35)	6·924 (17-11)	3,043	4,820·644 (11,912-06)	276·489 (683-22)	39,288	66,137·557 (1,63,429-32)

1. Covers persons who cultivate land themselves with or without the help of hired labour.
2. Covers persons who do not cultivate land themselves, but supervise and direct cultivation by labourers or farm servants.
3. Covers persons who receive rent, but do not directly or indirectly take part in cultivation.

*Figures in brackets show area in acres.

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It was, therefore, felt necessary to bring together all the uneconomic and scattered fragments of land for making them into profitable and economic units of cultivation. The government, therefore, passed an enactment entitled "Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings Act, 1947". Part I of the Act specifically deals with the prevention of further fragmentation of land. To implement these provisions "standard areas" which are the minimum areas of land determined under the Act for profitable cultivation have been fixed for different classes of lands. These "standard areas" vary according to the differences in quality of soil, climate, cost of cultivation, etc. The following figures show standard areas[1] fixed for different classes of land in Sangli district:—

Taluka	Dry crop	Bagayat	Rice	Remarks
	A. gs	A. gs.	A. gs.	
Khanapur	2 0	1 0	0 20	Except 33 villages from Atapadi area.
Tasgaon	2 0	1 0	0 20	
Miraj	2 0	1 0	0 20	Except the village Bedag.
Walwa	2 0	1 0	0 20	
Shirala	2 0	1 0	0 20	
Jath and 33 villages from Khanapur Taluka, i.e., Atapadi area.	4 0	1 0	0 20	

Any land which is less than the above standard area is regarded as a fragment. Under the Act, the owner of a fragment has every right to cultivate it. He is not deprived of his land. Even his heirs enjoy all the rights of cultivating the fragment. What the Act prohibits is the sale or lease of the fragment by its holder. The Act provides that the fragment must be sold or leased in such a way that it is merged in the adjacent land. If the neighbour cultivator is unwilling to accept the fragment, government can purchase the piece of land at the market value to be fixed under the Land Acquisition Act, 1894, and may lease it out to the adjacent cultivator or can allow the tenant, if any, to continue the cultivating possession of the same. The Act also prohibits future fragmentation. Even a civil court decree cannot be executed so as to create a fragment. Transactions leading to fragmentation are void and the cultivators doing it are punishable with a fine not exceeding Rs. 250.

In its second aspect the Act empowers the Government to take active steps to declare standard areas for different parts of the district and also to prepare and execute schemes for consolidation. In the process of consolidation, compact blocks of land

[1] The areas have been fixed by the Government under (1) Government notification, R. D., No. 5869-45-VII, published in part IV-B, Extraordinary of the Government Gazette, dated 18th May 1950 at page 911; (2) No Con. 3355-24654 (a)-M, dated 15th May 1959 published in B G G, dated 28th May 1959 at page 721.

are formed by bringing together the scattered fragments. While consolidation of small holdings, with the transfer of tenure of ings of equal fertility and outturn. A loser in the transactions is compensated by the Government as per the provisions of the Land Acquisition Act. The existing market value of the land is the basis of exchange. While carrying out the transactions of consolidation of small holdings, with the transfer of tenure of holding, other things such as debts, encumbrances, etc., are also transferred.

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The actual procedure of consolidation is as under:—

The villages in which the scheme is to be implemented are selected by the Government *suo motu* or the people may apply for the same which rarely happens. The list of such selected villages is notified at the mamlatdar's office and also in the concerned villages. The Consolidation Officer then issues a proclamation and calls for any claims for possession within 10 days. If there are any such claims, he is empowered to make necessary changes in the record of rights and to bring them up-to-date before starting the scheme. After this, the Consolidation Officer with the help of a specially appointed village committee makes the valuation of all kinds of land and publishes it for inviting any objections. Then in consultation with the holders and the committee he makes provisional blocking, which again is published for receiving any objections. The provisional blocking is then finalised and published in the village under section 19 (1) for inviting further objections within a period of 30 days. Objections received at this stage are considered by the Settlement Commissioner and Director of Land Records. The scheme is then finalised and published under section 19 (2) for objections, if any. If objections are not received, the Settlement Commissioner confirms the scheme, but if there are objections the scheme is then submitted to the Government for orders. The cost of consolidation is borne entirely by the Government. Consolidated blocks cannot be transferred or fragmented without the permission of collector or Government.

Achievements.

Standard areas for different categories of land of all the entries in respect of fragments have also been made in the entries in respect of fragments have also been made in the record-of-rights.

The scheme of consolidation was first put in operation in Khanapur taluka in the year 1954. Later other three talukas of the district *viz.*, Walwa, Miraj and Tasgaon were also taken up for the implementation of the scheme. The work of consolidation in Miraj taluka has been stopped due to the insignificant percentage of fragments. At present four Assistant Consolidation Officers with subordinate executive staff are working under the control and supervision of the Consolidation Officer, Sangli.

A statement showing the overall picture of the work done under the scheme in the district is given in the following table.

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TABLE No. 18.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE PROGRESS OF THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE SCHEME OF CONSOLIDATION IN SANGLI DISTRICT.

Taluka	Total No. of villages	Total area in hectares [1]	Before Consolidation: Total No. of holdings	Before Consolidation: Total No. of khatedars	Before Consolidation: Average holding per khatedar	Before Consolidation: Total No. of fragments	Before Consolidation: Percentage of fragments	After Consolidation: Total No. of blocks	After Consolidation: Total No. of khatedars	After Consolidation: Average holding per khatedar	After Consolidation: Total No of fragments	After Consolidation: Percentage of fragments
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)
"A" Schemes enforced												
Khanapur	23	26,228·104 (64,811)	38,806	9,829	3 9	28,931	74%	20,407	8,766	2·4	11,530	60%
Tasgaon	10	7,861·430 (19,426)	9,820	3,241	3·00	6,875	70%	5,260	3,133	1·7	2,662	50%
Miraj	7	4,694·762 (11,601)	3,778	1,965	2·00	1,739	46%	2,537	1,952	1·3	731	28%
Walwa	6	3,482·323 (8,605)	8,977	2,495	3·5	7,900	88%	5,198	2,415	2·2	3 903	75%
"B" Schemes finalised but pending confirmation												
Khanapur	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Tasgaon	2	2,120·959 (5,241)	2,789	849	3	1,929	69%	1,659	821	2·00	766	46%
Miraj	1	341·959 (845)	348	151	2	209	60%	237	148	1·5	90	38%
Walwa	1	1,925·091 (4,757)	6,148	1,218	5	5,809	94%	3,520	1,187	3·00	3,082	88%

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				" C " *Schemes in progress*								
Khanapur	2	1,218·509 (3,011)	2,618	800	..		..	..		..	..	..
Tasgaon	5	4,547·861 (11,238)	5,490	2,028	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Miraj	4	8,264·092 (20,421)	9,626	3,804	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Walwa	2	978·349 (2,294)	3,810	957	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

[1] Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

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CO-OPERATIVE FARMING.

Factors like increasing pressure of population on land, uneconomic size of holding, primitive and unscientific methods of cultivation, inequitable distribution of land, poverty and ignorance of the peasantry, etc., are the major impediments that stand in the way of implementation of the planned agricultural production in India. However, co-operative farming which implies pooling together of the scattered and uneconomic holdings of land and their joint management will go a long way towards the progress of agriculture. There are four types of co-operative farming societies which are described in the following paragraphs. They are: (1) better farming society, (2) tenant farming society, (3) joint farming society, and (4) collective farming society.

Better farming Society.

The better-farming society could be said to form the basis of the co-operative farming programme. The main object of it is to educate and to prepare the farmers to accept the new system of farming. For this, they organise demonstrations of improved methods of agriculture. Use of improved seeds, manures and implements is the most common activity undertaken by these societies. Besides this, a number of other activities such as disposal of farm produce at reasonable prices, purchase of occupational requisites, etc., are also undertaken. Under this type of co-operative farming, the ownership and management of land rest with the individual.

Co-operative Tenant Farming Society.

The co-operative tenant farming society provides its members with facilities such as finance, implements, seed, etc. The society owns land or gets it on lease, but it does not undertake farming. Land is divided into blocks and each block is given on rent to a cultivator who cultivates according to the plan laid down by the society.

Co-operative Joint Farming Society.

The joint-farming societies are suitable to solve the problem of fragmentation of land and the cultivation of uneconomic holdings. The land of small owners is pooled together increasing thereby the size of the unit of cultivation.

The members of the society work jointly on the pooled land according to the programme of the society. The cultivators who work on the farm receive wages for their labour. As against the proprietorship of land, the owner cultivators get dividend or rent in proportion to the value of the land. The common functions of these types of societies are planning of crop programmes, joint purchase of farm requisites, joint cultivation, raising of funds for the improvement of land and joint sale of farm produce. The small owners of land are encouraged to pool their land so as to form a large unit of cultivation. The society can also purchase or take on lease land for cultivation. Out of the proceeds received from the disposal of the produce, all the expenses of cultivation including payment for the use of land, wages and cost of management are met first. Provision for interest on borrowings, depreciation of wasting

assets, previous losses and for reserves and other funds is also made. The residue is then shared by members in proportion to the wages earned by each after utilising a part thereof towards the payment of bonus to the salaried staff.

Co-operative Collective Farming Society.

The society owns land or gets it on lease and it is collectively cultivated by its members. Most of these societies are organised on Government waste lands. Members get wages for their work and in the case of profits a bonus is paid in proportion to their wages. No dividend is paid on the share capital. The members of the collective farming society do not have any ownership or proprietary rights in the land.

The organisational position of co-operative farming in Sangli district as on 30th June 1963 was as follows:—

Of the 16 co-operative farming societies 10 were co-operative collective farming and six were co-operative joint farming societies. Eight collective farming societies were organised by backward class people. Out of the 16 societies nine collective farming societies and two joint farming societies were actually working while four were newly registered and one was defunct.

As the co-operative farming societies depend mainly on the Government lands which are leased out on short-term basis and which are generally on hilly slopes where considerable labour and money are required for cultivation, the progress of the movement is, slow. Only one co-operative farming society at Salagare in Miraj taluka had land on a permanent basis.

The total membership of these 16 societies stood at 558 as on 30th June 1963 and the share capital at Rs. 55,915. The financial assistance made available to these societies during the preceding three years was as under—

	1960-61	1961-62	1962-63
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
(1) Government share capital..	10,000	14,000	14,000
(2) Government loan	46,077	46,077	94,577
(3) Government subsidy ..	73,220	74,278	84,278

The position of all these types of societies in the district till 31st March 1963, is summarised in detail in the following table.

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CO-OPERATIVE FARMING.

TABLE No. 19.

DETAILS OF CO-OPERATIVE FARMING SOCIETIES IN SANGLI DISTRICT.

Serial No.	Name of the Society	Place	Year of Establishment	Number of members			Total
				Working persons	Landless persons	Land owners	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
1	Mangle B. C. Co-operative Collective Farming Society, Ltd. ..	Mangle	23-4-53	35	..	..	35
2	Karungali B. C. Co-operative Collective Farming Society, Ltd. ..	Karungali	14-4-53	16	..	..	16
3	Kharsing B. C. Co-operative Collective Farming Society, Ltd. ..	Kharsing	26-8-55	61	37	24	61
4	Salgare Co-operative Collective Farming Society, Ltd. .. .	Salgare	28-2-56	47	40	7	47
5	Kharsing Dandnath Co-operative Collective Farming Society, Ltd.	Kharsing	4-2-58	60	4	56	60
6	K. Digraj B. C. Co-operative Collective Farming Society, Ltd. ..	K. Digraj	5-5-53	..	95	..	95
7	Utagi B. C. Co-operative Collective Farming Society, Ltd.	Utagi	25-3-53	25	25	..	25
8	Sankh B. C. Co-operative Collective Farming Society, Ltd. ..	Sankh	22-9-55	24	24	1	25

9	Girish Co-operative Collective Farming Society, Ltd., Halli ..	Halli	10-10-50	25	47	12	59
10	Ped Matang Co-operative Collective Farming Society, Ltd., Ped ..	Ped	17-9-48	34	9	25	34
11	Ralras Co-operative Joint Farming Society, Ltd., Waghapur ..	Waghapur	6-3-53	22	2	22	24
12	Jyotirling Co-operative Joint Farming Society, Ltd., Yede-Nipani ..	Yede-Nipani	9-1-61	21	..	21	21
13	Rajaram Co-operative Joint Farming Society, Ltd., Kontyava-Boblad	Kontyava-Boblad ..	30-11-62	11	4	7	11
14	Yeshwant Co-operative Joint Farming Society, Ltd., Muchandi ..	Muchandi	16-3-63	16	13	8	21
15	Vijay Co-operative Joint Farming Society, Ltd., Kosari	Kosari	30-11-62	11	4	7	11

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

CO-OPERATIVE FARMING.

TABLE No. 19—*contd.*

Serial No.	Name of the Society	Place	Land in possession in hectares		Land cultivated		Loans sanctioned and disbursed by Government or registered up to 31st March 1963			
			Govt.	Private	Govt.	Private	Loans	Subsidies	Share capital	Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)
							Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1	Mangle B. C. Co-operative Collective Farming Society, Ltd.	Mangle ..	141·332 (349-24)	..	23·471 (58-00)	..	1,500	4,979	4,000	10,479
2	Karungali B. C. Co-operative Collective Farming Society, Ltd.	Karungali ..	54·701 (135-17)	..	32·375 (80-00)	..	1,500	5,891	4,000	11,391
3	Kharsing B. C. Co-operative Collective Farming Society, Ltd.	Kharsing ..	150·179 (371-10)	..	74·867 (185-00)	..	..	6,101	..	6,101
4	Salgare Co-operative Collective Farming Society Ltd.	Salgare ..	124·732 (308-22)	..	102·385 (253-00)	..	..	5,856	..	5,856
5	Kharsing Dandnath Co-operative Collective Farming Society Ltd.	Kharsing ..	236·773 (585-08)	..	80·937 (200-00)	..	7,750	4,661	..	12,211
6	K. Digraj B. C. Co-operative Collective Farming Society Ltd.	K. Digraj ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
7	Utagi B. C. Co-operative Collective Farming Society, Ltd.	Utagi ..	68·849 (170-13)	22·278 (55-05)	58·679 (145-00)	14·568 (36-00)	11,840	10,414	..	22,254

8	Sankh B. C. Co-operative Collective Farming Society, Ltd.	Sankh	93·077 (230-00)	..	75·271 (186-00)	..	7,124	2,000	9,124
9	Girish Co-operative Collective Farming Society, Ltd., Halli.	Halli	119·447 (295-16)	..	115·335 (285-00)	22,737	17,037	..	39,774
10	Ped Matang Co-operative Collective Farming Society, Ltd., Ped.	Ped	78·913 (195-00)	..	14·568 (36-00)	8,500	11,955	..	20,455
11	Ralras Co-operative Joint Farming Society, Ltd., Waghapur.	Waghapur ..	35·766 (88-38)	..	20·234 (50-00)	7,750	1,750	..	9,500
12	Jyotirling Co-operative Joint Farming Society, Ltd., Yede-Nipani.	Yede-Nipani ..	51·832 (128-08)	..	36·421 (90-00)	7,750	3,250	4,000	15,000
13	Rajaram Co-operative Joint Farming Society, Ltd., Kontvava-Bohlad.	Kontvava-Bohlad	60·747 (150-11)	..	50·585 (125-00)	7,750	1,750	..	9,500
14	Yeshwant Co-operative Joint Farming Society, Ltd., Muchandi.	Muchandi ..	72·584 (179-36)	..	67·987 (168-00)	7,750	1,750	..	9,500
15	Vijay Co-operative Joint Farming Society, Ltd., Kosari.	Kosari	81·050 (200-28)	..	24·281 (60-00)	7,750	1,750	..	9,500

Figures in brackets show area in acres.

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

CEREALS.

Jowar

Jowar (*Jondhala or Jvari*) is the most important cereal crop of the district. It is known as *Krishna kath* jowar. The crop thrives best in deep and heavy black soil. It is produced in *kharif* as well as in *rabi* seasons. *Kharif* jowar requires rainfall ranging from 508 to 1016 mm. (25 to 40 inches). Jowar occupied 2592121.714 hectares (640528 acres) of land in 1961-62. After jowar crop the land is ploughed. Next year on the same land rotational crops like tobacco, gram, groundnut etc., are produced. In the third year, again, jowar is grown. The land is, however, ploughed again before taking the jowar crop. Ploughing and one or two harrowings are done from February to May. After first showers in June, the land is again pulverised by a loaded harrow, *ubhatya kulav*. The good grain, specially preserved as seeds is sown in June-July either through three coultered drill, *Kuri* or *pabhari* or sometimes by dibbling method. Some oil-seeds and pulses are grown, mixed with *kharif* jowar. The seeds when drilled are covered with a plank. Two or three interculturings are given. This is known as *kolapane*. At times hand weeding is also done. The *kharif* jowar matures in November-December. The *rabi* crop on the other hand is drilled during September-October and harvested in February-March. The crop is either cut by sickle (*vila*) close to the ground or uprooted and exposed to the sun for about four days and the stalks are then tied into small bundles, (*pendhya*). The earheads are either cut off in the field itself or sometimes the bundles are carted to the threshing floor, (*khale*). The bundles are stored and arranged in heaps which are known as *buchad*. After some days the earheads (*Kanis*) are cut off and spread on the threshing floor. This is known as *modani* or *katani*. Generally stone rollers are used for *malani*. The grains are then separated from the chaff by winnowing it known as *vadavane*. The first heap of the winnowed grains is known as *ras*. Agriculturists observe various customs while harvesting and threshing the crop. Jowar is said to be the king of cereal crops and as such agriculturists many a time pull out the stalks instead of cutting them close to the ground. They also offer vegetarian or non-vegetarian food which is called as *paradi* or *davara* to the *ran devata* or *mhasoba*.

Watching of fields when the earheads bear green grains against birds or animals becomes essential. A *mala* is, therefore, erected in the midst of the field. It is a simple framework with intricate layers of leaves and branches of trees spread over the unhewed beams supported by forked stakes. A farmer or any member of his family, in the morning and evening stands on the *mala* and keeps the birds away by shouting and throwing stones through *gophan*.

Jowar is susceptible to pests and diseases. Their control measures are described separately in the respective sections.

The prominent *kharif* and *rabi* varieties of jowar grown in the district are *mamdapuri*, *gund*, and *maldandi* 35-1 and *shalu* respectively. The yield of the crop varies according to varying

conditions of soil and rainfall. The yield of the crop on an average is ten Bengali maunds per acre. Jowar is chiefly used for preparing bread (*bhakari*). It is the staple food of the people in the district. The grain is eaten as popped corn—*Jahis*. The parched unripe *rabi* jowar heads form a popular preparation called *hurda*. The stalks of the crop form superior fodder. When it is principally grown for fodder, the seed is sown thick.

Bajri.

Bajri is the next important food crop in the district. It occupied an area of 128,856.879 hectares (318,412 acres) in 1961-62. The crop requires rainfall varying between 254 and 1016 mm. (ten and forty inches) and land ranging from light to medium types. Rain at the time of germination of the seed, flowering (*phulavara*) and harvesting is very harmful as it affects the yield considerably. *Bajri* is usually grown as a *kharif* crop. The land is harrowed twice or thrice in May-June. The seed is drilled with four-coultered drill between the last week of June and mid-July. Bajri is sown mixed with *mug, matki, chavli*. The crop is harvested at the end of October when it is cut with a sickle close to the ground. The remaining operations such as tying the stalks into bundles, arranging them into heaps near the threshing floor, cutting the earheads, threshing and winnowing are done in the same way as for jowar. The green earheads of *bajri* are parched and eaten (*Limbur* or *nimbur*). *Bajri* is mainly used for preparing bread (*bhakari*). The stalks of bajri form good fodder (*sarambad*).

Wheat.

Wheat (*gahu*) occupied an area of 14995.235 hectares (37,054 acres) in 1961-62. It thrives well in black soils and requires dry and cold weather. Irrigations at the interval of about 15 days are given. The improved varieties of *gahu* sown in the district are N-59 dry variety, N-345 and N-146. The popular local variety grown in the district is *khapali*. The land is prepared by ploughing and two or three harrowings. Manures are also applied. The seeds are sown in October-November with four coultered drill and harvested by the middle of February or March. The plants are cut close to the ground and tied into small bundles which are then dried in the sun for about a week. The bundles are either beaten on a log of wood or a thick plank or beaten with sticks. The stalks (*kad*) are not used as fodder. Often they are used to thatch a tiled roof or the roof of a cattleshed. Wheat is more nutritive than jowar. The flour of wheat is mainly used for preparing *chapati, bread, puranpoli*, etc.

Rice.

Rice (*bhat*) occupied the fourth place among the food crops of the district. It covered an area of 13,678.387 hectares (33,800 acres) in 1961-62. The crop is grown in the district mostly on laterite type of soil (Shirala Peta), and sometimes on medium black soils. Warm and moist climate. and rainfall above forty inches are conducive to the abundant growth of the crop. Broadcasting, drilling, dibbling and transplanting are the four methods which are usually followed to raise the crop. Of these drilling

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation. CEREALS. Rice.

and dibbling are adopted in the district. The main varieties that are grown in the district are *kolam, bhadas, dodga* and *ambemohar*.

Under transplanting system of paddy cultivation fields are properly bunded so as to allow the water to spread evenly in the field. A plot is selected in the field and ploughed and levelled. Leaves, grass, small branches of trees which are usually brought from the jungle and cowdung are spread in layers. Sometimes mud is spread over the upper layer. These layers are locally known as *rab* which is then set on fire in April-May. After first good showers of monsoon, seeds are sown in the *rabbed* plot which gives vigorous seedlings. When the seedlings are 203.2 to 254 mm. (eight to ten inches) high, they are pulled out, tied into small bundles and are removed to the field. Three or four seedlings are planted by hand in each place in a row. The distance between the plants and that between the rows varies from 203.2 to 304.8 mm. (eight inches to twelve inches), respectively. Manures are applied in two doses, first dose a week after transplanting and the second dose is given a fortnight before flowering. Maturing period which depends upon the types of soil and the variety of seed grown varies between three and half months and five months since plantation. The crop is cut close to the ground, tied into small bundles and taken to the threshing floor where the bundles are beaten on a log of wood or on stone. Rice is eaten after it is separated from the husk and boiled. *Pohas* and *murmuras* are also prepared from rice.

Maize.

Maize (*maka*) occupied an area of 2361.747 hectares (5,836 acres) in 1961-62. The crop requires rainfall between 508 to 762 mm. (20 and 30 inches) and thrives best in well drained soil and deep alluvial lands. The land is ploughed and harrowed in February to May and the seed is sown after the first good showers of monsoon. Its growth is very quick. The crop matures within three or four months and is harvested from the middle of September to the middle of October. The crop, sown in February is harvested in May. When green stalks of maize are to be used as fodder, the seed is sown thick. The cobs are cut off and dried in the sun and grains are removed by hand. The green heads (*kanis*) are eaten parched or boiled. *Bhakaris* are also prepared from its flour.

Ragi.

Ragi (*nachani* or *nagli*) covered an area of 1002.002 hectares (2476 acres) in 1961-62. It is grown on the hill slopes. A bunch of three or four seedlings is transplanted in the small furrows in the second fortnight of July. The seedlings are usually transplanted in field. The crop is harvested by the end of October. The red breads, *bhakaris* prepared from its flour are very nutritious. Flour is also made into a cooling drink called *ambil*.

Vari

Vari is a minor cereal crop grown in the district. It occupied an area of 663.280 hectares (1639 acres) in 1961-62. Usually it is produced as a mixed crop. It is grown in light-red soils on hilly tracts. The crop transplanted in July is harvested in October.

The crop is reaped with a sickle. The grains are cooked like rice and eaten mostly on fast days.

Other minor cereal crops that are grown in the district include barley, Italian millets, sava, kodra and kutki.

The following table gives an area under important cereals in the district from 1956-57 to 1961-62.

TABLE No. 20.

AREA UNDER CEREALS IN SANGLI DISTRICT, 1956-57 TO 1961-62.

(Area in hectares)

Taluka (1)	Year (2)	Rice (3)	Wheat (4)	Barley (5)	Jowar (6)	Bajri (7)
Walwa	1956-57	972·865 (2,404)	2,153·334 (5,321)	8·903 (22)	29,481·780 (72,851)	868·861 (2,147)
	1957-58	1,031·140 (2,546)	2,086·966 (5,157)	7·284 (18)	29,599·948 (73,143)	770·117 (1,903)
	1958-59	1,131·907 (2,797	1,953·419 (4,827)	4·047 (10)	29,532·365 (72,976)	781·449 (1,931)
	1959-60	1,144·047 (2,827)	2,180·448 (5,388)	12·140 (30)	29,534·389 (72,981)	634·548 (1,568)
	1960-61	1,295·804 (3,202)	2,111·247 (5,217)	6·070 (15)	28,916·433 (71,454)	539·042 (1,332)
	1961-62 ..	1,513·526 (3,740)	2,389·671 (5,905)	.. ..	27,636·816 (68,292)	505·453 (1,249)
Miraj	1956-57 ..	464·175 (1,147)	2,230·629 (5,512)	.. ..	49,390·307 (122,046)	28,021·673 (69,243)
	1957-58 ..	399·020 (986)	2,256·124 (5,575)	.. ..	49,151·138 (121,455)	29,633·537 (73,226)

	1958-59 ..	349·244 (863)	2,183·281 (5,395)	7·689 (19)	51,912·311 (128,278)	29,002·631 (71,667)
	1959-60 ..	421·683 (1,042)	2,140·789 (5,290)	8·094 (20)	50,040·233 (123,652)	28,873·941 (71,349)
	1960-61 ..	340·341 (841)	2,358·510 (5,828)	.. ..	53,957·594 (133,332)	28,848·041 (71,285)
	1961-62 ..	399·020 (986)	2,293·760 (5,668)	.. ..	52,477·657 (129,675)	25,726·294 (63,571)
Tasgaon	1956-57 ..	248·072 (613)	1,746·625 (4,316)	9·712 (24)	40,968·387 (101,235)	5,581·429 (13,792)
	1957-58 ..	260·213 (643)	1,958·275 (4,839)	1·619 (4)	42,878·505 (105,955)	5,671·674 (14,015)
	1958-59 ..	297·849 (736)	1,984·175 (4,903)	2·428 (6)	43,628·388 (107,808)	6,050·865 (14,952)
	1959-60 ..	372·311 (920)	1,829·181 (4,520)	.. ..	46,017·654 (113,712)	5,738·043 (14,179)
	1960-61 .	413·184 (1,021)	2,386·838 (5,898)	2·023 (5)	43,593·990 (107,723)	4,569·714 (11,292)
	1961-62 .	417·231 (1,031)	2,233·057 (5,518)	.. ..	42,645·406 (105,379)	4,357·659 (10,768)
Khanapur	1956-57 ..	687·986 (1,700)	4,219·661 (10,427)	14·973 (37)	50,980·319 (125,975)	57,727·244 (142,647)
	1957-58 ..	636·976 (1,574)	4,440·215 (10,972)	16·592 (41)	49,204·557 (121,587)	56,26[illegible]·709 (133,033)
	1958-59 ..	630·905 (1,55[illegible])	4,103·516 (10,140)	23·067 (57)	49,836·271 (123,148)	55,454·122 (137,030)

TABLE No. 20—*contd.*

Taluka (1)	Year (2)	Rice (3)	Wheat (4)	Barley (5)	Jowar (6)	Bajri (7)
Khanapur—*contd.*	1959-60 ..	3,579·448 (8,845)	4,468·138 (11,041)	15·378 (38)	55,475·976 (137,084)	52,301·214 (129,239)
	1960-61 ..	664·899 (1,643)	4,160·577 (10,281)	2·833 (7)	53,603·350 (132,469)	55,440·363 (136,996)
	1961-62 ..	789·947 (1,952)	4,333·782 (10,709)	2·023 (5)	54,507·967 (134,692)	54,032·056 (133,516)
Jath	1956-57 ..	856·725 (2,117)	2,517·147 (6,220)	1·214 (3)	68,924·905 (170,317)	52,352·204 (129,365)
	1957-58 ..	1,275·975 (3,153)	2,920·214 (7,216)	0·405 (1)	68,770·720 (169,936)	46,111·541 (113,944)
	1958-59 ..	1,207·988 (2,985)	28,533·196 (70,507)	.. ..	76,269·147 (188,465)	46,547·793 (115,022)
	1959-60 ..	1,388·882 (3,432)	2,151·715 (7,317)	0·405 (1)	76,210·872 (188,321)	45,505·322 (112,446)
	1960-61 ..	1,330·607 (3,288)	3,288·074 (8,125)	.. ..	74,595·770 (184,330)	42,761·146 (105,665)
	1961-62 ..	1,205·155 (2,978)	3,277·552 (8,099)	.. ..	76,324·994 (188,603)	44,233·394 (109,303)

Shirala	1956-57 ..	7,648·970 (18,901)	359·766 (889)	33·184 (82)	5,905·987 (14,594)	11·331 (28)
	1957-58 ..	7,476·574 (18,475)	324·963 (803)	20·234 (50)	6,048·032 (14.945)	19·425 (48)
	1958-59 ..	7,685·392 (18,991)	310·799 (768)	16·187 (40)	5,947·265 (14,696)	15·783 (39)
	1959-60 ..	8,262·069 (20,416)	447·178 (1,105)	26·304 (65)	6,040·343 (14,926)	14·164 (35)
	1960-61 ..	9,179·088 (22,682)	370·288 (915)	12·950 (32)	5,769·608 (14,257)	8·498 (21)
	1961-62 ..	9,353·507 (23,113)	467·412 (1,155)	39·254 (97)	5,619·874 (13,887)	2·023 (5)
District Total	1956-57 ..	10,878·769 (26,882)	13,227·162 (32,685)	67·987 (168)	245,651·686 (607,018)	144,562·742 (357,222)
	1957-58 ..	11,079·898 (27,379)	13,986·757 (34,562)	46·134 (114)	245,652·900 (607,021)	138,471·004 (342,169)
	1958-59 ..	11,303·285 (27,931)	39,068·386 (96,540)	53·418 (132)	257,117·655 (635,371)	137,852·644 (340.641)
	1959-60 ..	15,168·441 (37,482)	14,026·821 (34,661)	62·322 (154)	263,319·468 (650,676)	133,067·232 (328,816)
	1960-61 ..	13,223·924 (32,677)	14,675·533 (36,264)	23·876 (59)	260,441·745 (643,565)	132,166·807 (326,591)
	1961-62 ..	13,678·387 (33,800)	14,995·235 (37,054)	41·278 (102)	259,212·714 (640,528)	128,856·879 (318,412)

Figures in brackets show area in acres.

CHAPTER 4.
Agriculture and Irrigation.
CEREALS.

TABLE No. 20—*contd.*

AREA UNDER CEREALS IN SANGLI DISTRICT, 1956-57 TO 1961-62—*contd.*

(Area in hectares)

Taluka (1)	Year (2)	Maize (8)	Ragi (9)	Italian Millets (10)	Vari (11)	Sava (12)	Other cereals (13)
Walwa	1956-57 ..	332·652 (822)	13·759 (34)	408·328 (1,009)	15·378 (38)	.. ..	2·428 (6)
	1957-58 ..	341·555 (844)	27·923 (69)	356·933 (882)	18·615 (46)	.. ..	49·372 (122)
	1958-59 ..	344·792 (852)	14·973 (37)	325·367 (804)	4·047 (10)	.. ..	27·923 (69)
	1959-60 ..	353·695 (874)	13·759 (34)	327·391 (809)	16·592 (41)	.. ..	28·328 (70)
	1960-61 ..	329·819 (815)	15·378 (38)	246·858 (610)	19·425 (48)	.. ..	.. ..
	1961-62 ..	378·381 (935)	98·743 (244)	279·638 (691)	18·211 (45)	.. ..	1·214 (3)
Miraj	1956-57 ..	410·756 (1,015)	.. ..	74·057 (183)	31·565 (78)	.. ..	0·405 (1)
	1957-58 ..	284·899 (704)	63·940 (158)	1·619 (4)	36·422 (20)	.. ..	12·950 (32)

	1958-59 ..	346·006 (855)	..	67·987 (168)	48·562 (120)	..	57·870 (143)
	1959-60 ..	303·110 (749)	..	66·368 (164)	60·298 (149)	..	8·094 (20)
	1960-61 ..	351·672 (869)	..	46·943 (116)	13·759 (34)	..	..
	1961-62 ..	339·531 (839)	..	61·917 (153)	84·984 (210)	..	..
Tasgaon	1956-57 ..	283·280 (700)	..	239·169 (591)	..	177·252 (438)	..
	1957-58 ..	288·946 (714)	..	209·627 (518)	..	187·370 (463)	0·405 (1)
	1958-59 ..	277·614 (686)	..	201·129 (497)	..	68·392 (169)	..
	1959-60 ..	290·564 (718)	34·803 (86)	177·657 (439)	..	84·175 (208)	..
	1960-61 ..	275·186 (680)	0·405 (1)	225·815 (558)	88·626 (219)	76·081 (188)	..
	1961-62 ..	261·832 (647)	8·903 (22)	153·376 (379)	..	141·640 (350)	..
Khanapur	1956-57 ..	420·873 (1,040)	..	1,104·793 (2,730)	420·469 (1,039)	..	..
	1957-58 ..	473·887 (1,171)	1,282·855 (3,170)	..	322·130 (796)	..	..

TABLE No. 20—*contd.*

Taluka (1)	Year (2)	Maize (8)	Ragi (9)	Italian Millets (10)	Vari (11)	Sava (12)	Other cereals (13)
Khanapur—*contd.*	1958-59 ..	466·198 (1,152)	1·214 (3)	1,144·857 (2,829)	303·110 (749)	..	..
	1959-60 ..	464·984 (1,149)	808 (2)	489·670 (1,210)	1,013·738 (2,505)	..	..
	1960-61 ..	351·267 (868)	32·375 (80)	290·969 (719)	906·497 (2,240)	..	..
	1961-62 ..	407·923 (1,008)	13·355 (33)	1,109·649 (2,742)	318·892 (788)	..	..
Jath	1956-57 ..	317·274 (784)	..	125·857 (311)	3·237 (8)	..	..
	1957-58 ..	125·453 (310)	59·084 (146)	..	2·833 (7)	..	29·947 (74)
	1958-59 ..	178·062 (440)	..	74·057 (183)	7·689 (19)	..	..
	1959-60 ..	171·991 (425)	..	67·987 (168)	6·070 (15)	..	42·897 (106)
	1960-61 ..	215·293 (532)	..	50·990 (126)	1·214 (3)	..	285·304 (705)
	1961-62 ..	222·577 (550)	0·405 (1)	72·843 (180)	25·900 (64)	..	..

Shirala	1956-57 ..	705·368 (1,743)	.. ..	625·644 (1,546)	458·509 (1,133)	.. ..	69·606 (172)
	1957-58 ..	634·548 (1,568)	1,271·523 (3,142)	576·273 (1,424)	358·956 (887)	.. ..	83·770 (207)
	1958-59 ..	658·019 (1,626)	1,531·332 (3,784)	582·343 (1,433)	382·023 (944)	.. ..	89·840 (222)
	1959-60 ..	781·449 (1,931)	1,267·881 (3,133)	532·567 (1,316)	311·608 (770)	.. ..	178·062 (440)
	1960-61 ..	301·696 (746)	1,060 277 (2,620)	333·461 (824)	221·768 (548)	.. ..	122·215 (302)
	1961-62 ..	751·502 (1,857)	880·597 (2,176)	280·852 (694)	215·293 (532)	.. ..	81·342 (201)
District Total ..	1956-57 ..	2,470·203 (6,104)	13·759 (34)	2.577·850 (6,370)	929·159 (2,296)	177·252 (438)	72·439 (179)
	1957-58 ..	2,149·287 (5,311)	2.705·326 (6,685)	1.144·452 (2,828)	738·957 (1,826)	187·370 (463)	176·443 (436)
	1958-59 .	2,270·693 (5,611)	1.547·519 (3.824)	2.395·336 (5,919)	745·432 (1,842)	68·392 (169)	175·634 (434)
	1959-60 ..	2,365·794 (5,846)	1,317·188 (3.255)	1.661·641 (4,106)	1,408·307 (3,480)	84·175 (208)	257·380 (636)
	1960-61 ..	1,825·134 (4,510)	1,108·435 (2,739)	1,195·038 (2,953)	1,251·289 (3,092)	76·081 (188)	407·519 (1,007)
	1961-62 ..	2,361·747 (5,836)	1,002·002 (2,476)	1,958·275 (4,839)	663·280 (1,639)	141·640 (350)	82.151 (203)

Figures in brackets show area in acres.

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Agriculture and Irrigation.

PULSES.

Pulses occupy an important position in the agrarian economy of the district. Next to cereals they are important as food crops. *Matki, gram, tur,* horsegram, *udid, mug* are the main pulses cultivated in the district.

Matki.

Matki (*math*) occupied the highest acreage under pulses during the period from 1956-57 to 1961-62. It is grown throughout the district as a *kharif* crop. It is sown in June-July usually as a mixed crop along with bajri in every fourth or sixth row. It can be grown on light sandy soil and also on poor soils. The crop is harvested in November. The plants are uprooted and brought to the threshing floor (*khale*) where it is either trampled by oxen or beaten with sticks. When the grains are used as vegetable, generally, they are kept in water for about a day and then are wrapped in a piece of cloth. After about two days the grains sprout. Such grains are popularly known as *modachi matki.* It is also used as split pulse and eaten parched or boiled with condiments. Sometimes the grains are given to horses. Its leaves and stalks are used as fodder known as *bhuskat.*

Gram.

Gram (*harbhara*) is the next important pulse crop in the district. It occupied an area of 15396.279 hectares (38045 acres) in 1961-62. It is grown all over the district mostly as a *rabi* crop. It can be grown on a wide range of soil. It gives a high yield on good black soil. It is sown in October with a four coultered drill at a distance of about 254 to 304.8 mm. (10 to 12 inches). The crop is harvested after about three months when the leaves become reddish brown and the green colour of the pods (*ghate*) turns into pale white. The plants are uprooted and then they are spread all over the threshing floor. After five or six days when the plants are dried they are either trampled by oxen or beaten with sticks.

The tops of the shoots, *shenda* are plucked off before flowering for its good growth and maximum outturn of grain. The green grains of the gram are also used as vegetable, especially for *usal.* The gram pulse (*dal*) is extensively used for preparing *puranpoli* and *bundi* or *kalichе ladu.*

Tur.

Tur can be grown on a variety of soils, light as well as heavy. Medium moist soils, however, gives good outturn of grain. Usually it is sown through one coultered seed drill, *mogana,* in June-July as a mixed crop with *bajri* in every fourth or eighth row. The crop is harvested by the end of February or so. The red or light brown seeds are generally sown in the district. It covered an area of 16484.479 hectares (40,734 acres) in 1961-62. A pod of *tur* generally consists of about four grains. The plants are cut close to the ground, tied into bundles, *bhara,* and are brought to the threshing floor. After about a week the plants are usually beaten with long sticks. The stems are then separated and tied into bundles and the broken pods are winnowed. The stems, *turatya* are used to thatch a house or a cattle shed and also for making baskets. Sometimes in rural areas the stems are tied in a small bundle which is used as a broom, *kharata,* to

clean the cattle shed or ground. The green pods many a time are eaten after boiling them. The yellow split pulse is used to prepare curry. The outer husk of the grain is used as fodder.

PULSES.
Horse Gram.

Horse gram (*hulga* or *kulthi*) occupied an area of 10966.586 hectares (27,099 acres) in 1961-62. It is grown throughout the district as a *kharif* crop on a variety of soils sandy loam, reddish and medium black. Usually, it is sown through four-coultered drill in June-July as a mixed crop with bajra in every fourth row. The crop becomes ready for harvest by November. The plants are uprooted and are brought to the threshing floor where they are trampled under the feet of oxen. The grains are usually brown, light red. The green crop is often used as a fodder. The pulse is given to horses after boiling. The poor people in rural areas prepare *madge* from the grain.

Black Gram.

Black gram (*udid*) covered an area of 5696.765 hectares (14,077 acres) in 1961-62. It is sown in June on a variety of soils like light red, brown alluvial and black. The crop is sown through four coultered drill, *kuri*, as a mixed crop with *bajri* and jowar in rows. It is harvested in November. It is ground into powder to prepare *papads*. The stalks and leaves form good fodder for the cattle.

Mug.

Mug occupied an area of 990.267 hectares (2,447 acres) in 1961-62. Usually it is grown as a mixed crop with *kharif* jowar and *bajri* on medium black soil in every fourth or eighth row. It is also grown as an independent crop. The crop matures within three to four months from sowing. The ripe pulse is split and consumed as *dal*. Its flour is also used to prepare *laddus*. The leaves and stalks are used as fodder.

Other minor pulses grown in the district include *chavli*, *val*, *watana* and *masur*.

The following table gives the area under pulses in the district from 1956-57 to 1961-62.

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PULSES.

TABLE No. 21.

AREA UNDER PULSES IN SANGLI DISTRICT FROM 1956-57 TO 1961-62.

(Area in hectares)

Taluka (1)	Year (2)	Gram (3)	Mug (4)	Tur (5)	Udid (6)	Horse Gram (7)	Math (8)	Wal (9)	Chavli (10)
Jath	1956-57 ..	1,165·496 (2880)	252·929 (625)	1,510·693 (3,733)	23·472 (58)	2,994·272 (7,399)	7,045583 17, 410)	..	29·947 (74)
	1957-58 ..	1,167·519 (2,685)	57·465 (142)	1,956·657 (4,835)	·808 (2)	3,845·731 (9,503)	6,618·235 (16,354)	1·619 (4)	23·876 (59)
	1958-59 ..	1,122·599 (2,774)	136·807 (343)	1,736·913 (4,292)	8·094 (20)	3,015·720 (7,452)	7,120·450 (17,595)	4·856 (12)	23·067 (57)
	1959-60 ..	1,086·177 (2,684)	138·807 (343)	1703·180 (4,221)	6·070 (15)	3,292·525 (8,136)	7,062·175 (17,451)	26·304 (65)	62·726 (155)
	1960-61 ..	1,207·178 (2,983)	167·135 (413)	1,790·735 (4,425)	12·140 (30)	3,429·309 (8,474)	6,803·581 (16,812)	5·261 (13)	80·937 (200)
	1961-62 ..	1,167·924 (2,886)	161·470 (399)	1,850·629 (4,573)	162·279 (401)	3,553·548 (8,781)	6,898·277 (17,046)	19·830 (49)	57·061 (141)
Shirala	1956-57 ..	634·952 (1,569)	1·619 (4)	225·410 (557)	503·025 (1,243)	269·116 (665)	1·214 (3)	74·462 (184)	12·950 (32)
	1957-58 ..	746·241 (1,844)	3·642 (9)	254·547 (629)	483·195 (1,194)	211·651 (523)	7·689 (19)	96·720 (239)	16·997 (42)

	1958-59 ..	711·438 (1,758)	2·428 (6)	233·504 (577)	440·703 (1,089)	223·791 (553)	8·903 (22)	70·820 (175)	18·615 (46)
	1959-60 ..	997·146 (2,464)	2·428 (6)	179·680 (444)	323·344 (799)	144·473 (357)	0·405 (1)	81·746 (202)	8·498 (21)
	1960-61 ..	1,112·482 (2,749)	1·619 (4)	169·563 (419)	275·591 (681)	111·289 (275)	..	97·934 (242)	4·451 (11)
	1961-62 ..	1,063·919 (2,629)	1·619 (4)	122·620 (303)	288·136 (712)	90·245 (223)	..	72·034 (178)	2·428 (6)
Khanapur	1956-57 ..	3,071·162 (7,589)	430·181 (1,063)	4,656·317 (11,506)	3,718·255 (9,188)	3,024·623 (7,474)	11,807·119 (29,176)	36·422 (90)	228·243 (564)
	1957-58 ..	3,217·254 (7,950)	441·917 (1,092)	4,791·077 (11,839)	3,709·352 (9,166)	2,952·184 (7,295)	12,296·384 (30.385)	91·459 (226)	249·691 (617)
	1958-59 ..	3,336·636 (8,245)	632·929 (1,564)	4,785·412 (11,825)	3,322·472 (8,210)	3,210·374 (7,933)	11,702·305 (28,917)	34·398 (85)	256·976 (635)
	1959-60 ..	3,615·060 (8,933)	529·734 (1,309)	4,859·469 (12,008)	3,369·011 (8,325)	2,781·002 (6,872)	11,827·353 (29,226)	100·767 (249)	251·310 (621)
	1960-61 ..	2,966·348 (7,330)	276·400 (683)	5,024 986 (12,417)	2,682·663 (6,629)	2,069·564 (5,114)	11,822·092 (29,213)	31·970 (79)	136·784 (338)
	1961-62 ..	2,781·002 (6,872)	401·043 (991)	4,601·684 (11,371)	3,722·302 (9,198)	2,171·545 (5,366)	10,874·317 (26,871)	40 873 (101)	201·129 (497)
Miraj	1956-57 ..	4,602·089 (11,372)	268·307 (663)	4,129·821 (10,205)	45·729 (113)	2,394·932 (5,918)	3,592·398 (8,877)	108·456 (268)	286·922 (709)
	1957-58 ..	4,280·364 (10,577)	278·829 (689)	4.303·836 (10,635)	98·743 (244)	2,391·289 (5,909)	3,784·219 (9,351)	107·242 (265)	115·740 (286)

TABLE No. 21—*contd.*

Taluka (1)	Year (2)	Gram (3)	Mug (4)	Tur (5)	Udid (6)	Horse Gram (7)	Math (8)	Wal (9)	Chavli (10)
Miraj—*contd.*	1958-59 .	36,435·095 (90,033)	199·510 (493)	4,096·232 (10,122)	72·439 (179)	2,256·934 (5,577)	3,692·355 (9,124)	89·840 (222)	89·840 (222)
	1959-60 .	3,641·365 (8,998)	195 059 (482)	4,087·733 (10,101)	147·710 (365)	2,568·947 (6,348)	4,059·810 (10,032)	128·690 (318)	84·175 (208)
	1960-61 ..	3,161·812 (7,813)	183·727 (454)	4,187·286 (10,347)	63·536 (157)	2,168·307 (5,358)	3,207·541 (8,926)	114·931 (284)	88·221 (218)
	1961-62 ..	3,502·762 (8,656)	127·881 (316)	4,1702·89 (10,305)	173·610 (429)	2,297·402 (5,677)	3,213·611 (7,941)	113·312 (280)	58·679 (145)
Walwa	1956-57 ..	3,308·713 (8,176)	177·657 (439)	2,186·518 (5,403)	947·775 (2,342)	822·727 (2,033)	244·026 (603)	109·670 (271)	112·503 (278)
	1957-58 ..	3,207·541 (7,926)	152·162 (376)	2,253·292 (5,568)	1,031·949 (2,550)	799·255 (1,975)	213·269 (527)	107·646 (266)	137·593 (340)
	1958-59 ..	3,014·101 (7,448)	132·737 (328)	1,957·871 (4,838)	1,031·140 (2,548)	794·803 (1,964)	213·269 (527)	131·928 (326)	93·887 (232)

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Agriculture and Irrigation.

PULSES.

	1959-60 ..	3,189·735 (7,882)	151·757 (375)	1,959·490 (4,842)	927·945 (2,293)	762·428 (1,884)	146·496 (362)	132·737 (328)	82·556 (204)
	1960-61 ..	2,678·617 (6,619)	113·312 (280)	1,866·007 (4,611)	949·393 (2,346)	733·291 (1,812)	188·988 (467)	109·265 (270)	114·121 (282)
	1961-62 ..	2,757·126 (6,813)	89·031 (220)	1,818·254 (4,493)	824·750 (2,038)	812·205 (2,007)	149·329 (369)	142·449 (352)	71·225 (176)
Tasgaon	1956-57 ..	5,683·410 (14,044)	76·890 (190)	4,092·589 (10,113)	526·496 (1,301)	2,246·817 (5,552)	1,686·731 (4,168)	66·368 (164)	140·831 (348)
	1957-58 ..	5,276·701 (13,039)	161·874 (400)	4,114·847 (10,168)	602·577 (1,489)	2,326·944 (5,750)	1,669·330 (4,125)	89·840 (222)	105·623 (261)
	1958-59 ..	2,722·323 (6,727)	128·285 (317)	4,052·930 (10,015)	711·843 (1,759)	2,193·398 (5,420)	1,583·536 (3,913)	73·248 (181)	194·654 (481)
	1959-60 ..	4,484·730 (11,082)	129·499 (320)	4,200·641 (10,380)	578·701 (1,430)	2,249·245 (5,558)	1,608·222 (3,974)	65·964 (163)	80·937 (200)
	1960-61 ..	3,999·512 (9,883)	125·048 (309)	4,002·344 (9,890)	492·907 (1,218)	2,093·441 (5,173)	1,314·420 (3,248)	116·145 (287)	141·640 (350)
	1961-62 ..	4,123·345 (10,189)	209·223 (517)	3,921·003 (9,689)	525·687 (1,299)	2,163·047 (5,345)	1,689·564 (4,175)	56·251 (139)	100·362 (248)

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

PULSES.

TABLE No. 21—*contd.*

Taluka (1)	Year (2)	Gram (3)	Mug (4)	Tur (5)	Udid (6)	Horse Gram (7)	Math (8)	Wal (9)	Chavli (10)
District Total	1956-57 .	18,465·822 (45,630)	1,207·583 (2,984)	16,801·349 (41,517)	5,764·752 (14,245)	11,752·486 (29,041)	24,377·070 (60,237)	395·378 (977)	811·395 (2,005)
	1957-58 .	17,895·620 (44,221)	1,095·890 (2,708)	17,674·256 (43,674)	5,926·626 (14,645)	12,527·055 (30,955)	24,589·126 (60,761)	494·526 (1,222)	649·521 (1,605)
	1958-59 ..	47,342·192 (116,985)	1,234·697 (3,051)	16,862·861 (41,669)	5,586·690 (13,805)	11,695·021 (28,899)	24,320·819 (60,098)	405·091 (1,001)	677·040 (1,673)
	1959-60 ..	17,014·213 (42,043)	1,147·285 (2,835)	16,995·193 (41,996)	5,352·782 (13,227)	11,798·620 (29,155)	24,704·461 (61,046)	536·209 (1,325)	570·202 (1,409)
	1960-61 ..	15,125·949 (37,377)	867·242 (2,143)	17,040·923 (42,109)	4,476·232 (11,061)	10,605·201 (26,206)	23,741·309 (58,666)	575·506 (1,175)	566·156 (1,399)
	1961-62 ..	15,396·279 (38,045)	990·267 (2,447)	16,484·479 (40,734)	5,696·765 (14,077)	10,966·586 (27,099)	22,825·100 (56,402)	444·750 (1,099)	369·478 (913)

Figures in brackets show area in acres.

OIL-SEEDS.

Groundnut, safflower, sesomum and niger are the important oil-seeds grown in the district. Of these groundnut is the most important oil-seed. The oils of different seeds are used for various purposes such as cooking, burning and medicines. As could be seen from the Table No. 22, the area under oil-seeds has not expanded considerably during 1956-57 to 1961-62.

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Agriculture and Irrigation.
OIL-SEEDS.

TABLE No. 22.

AREA UNDER OIL-SEEDS IN SANGLI DISTRICT FROM 1956-57 TO 1961-62.

(Area in hectares)

Taluka (1)	Year (2)	Groundnut (3)	Sesamum (4)	Safflower (5)	Linseed (6)	Castor (7)	Niger (8)	Total Oil-seeds (9)
Walwa	1956-57 ..	11,372·486 (28,102)	0·405 (1)	464·984 (1,149)	0·405 (1)	1·619 (4)	.. ..	11,839·898 (29,257)
	1957-58 .	11,956·448 (29,545)	0 405 (1)	485 623 (1,200)	.. ..	1 619 (4)	.. ..	12,444·094 (30,750)
	1958-59 ..	12,309·334 (30,417)	0·405 (1)	441·917 (1,092)	.. ..	1·214 (3)	.. ..	12752,870 (31,513)
	1959-60 ..	11,393·530 (28,154)	3·237 (8)	438·680 (1,084)	1·619 (4)	0·809 (2)	89·840 (222)	11,927·715 (29,474)
	1960-61 .	11,824·115 (29,218)	0·809 (2)	394 973 (976)	1·214 (3)	0·809 (2)	54·633 (135)	12,276·554 (30,336)
	1961-62 ..	12,235·276 (30,234)	0·809 (2)	371·097 (917)	1·214 (3)	0·809 (2)	76·081 (188)	12,685·287 (31,346)
Jath	1956-57 ..	10 420·260 (25,749)	1,394·548 (3,446)	4,820·215 (11,911)	76·081 (188)	50·586 (125)	131·523 (325)	16,893·212 (41,744)
	1957-58 ..	16,578·367 (40,966)	2,933·164 (7,248)	4,017·722 (9,928)	48·562 (120)	14·164 (35)	148·115 (366)	23,740·095 (58,663)
	1958-59 ..	12,841·496 (31,732)	2,477·487 (6,122)	3,884·176 (9,598)	57·870 (143)	10·522 (26)	194·249 (480)	19,465·801 (48,101)

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OIL-SEEDS.

	1959-60 ..	14,416·939 (35,625)	1,757·147 (4,342)	3,973·207 (9.818)	118·573 (293)	7·689 (19)	241·193 (596)	20,514·747 (50,693)
	1960-61 ..	14,638·302 (36,172)	1,952·610 (4,825)	4,133·058 (10,213)	95·910 (237)	23·472 (58)	142·854 (353)	20,986·206 (51,858)
	1961-62 ..	12,941·858 (31,980)	1,909·308 (4,718)	4,078·425 (10,078)	68·797 (170)	9·308 (23)	312·822 (773)	19,320·519 (47,742)
Khanapur	1956-57 ..	10,261·218 (25,356)	3·642 (9)	1,557·232 (3,848)	4·451 (11)	2·833 (7)	82·151 (203)	11,911·528 (29,434)
	1957-58 ..	10,446·564 (25,814)	8·903 (22)	1,258·169 (3,109)	2·428 (6)	13·759 (34)	74·057 (183)	11,803·881 (29,168)
	1958-59 ..	10,837·491 (26,780)	8·093 (20)	1,714·250 (4,236)	10 522 (26)	2·428 (6)	82·151 (203)	12,654·936 (31,271)
	1959-60 ..	6,830·695 (16,879)	21·044 (52)	27·923 (69)	4·856 (12)	42·492 (105)	68·392 (169)	6,995·402 (17,286)
	1960-61 .	11,506·437 (28,433)	21·853 (54)	1,248·861 (3,086)	1·619 (4)	17·401 (43)	55·442 (137)	12,851·613 (31,757)
	1961-62 ..	11,216·277 (27,716)	16·997 (42)	1,162·663 (2,873)	0·809 (2)	11·736 (29)	75·676 (187)	12,484·158 (30,849)
Tasgaon	1956-57 ..	17,354·959 (42,885)	.. ..	781·448 (1,931)	3·642 (9)	9·308 (23)	16·187 (40)	18,165·545 (44,888)
	1957-58 .	18,295·854 (45,210)	1·214 (3)	753·930 (1,863)	4·856 (12)	13·355 (33)	12·950 (32)	19,082·159 (47,153)
	1958-59 ..	18,482·414 (45,671)	1 619 (4)	567·370 (1,402)	3·237 (8)	5·666 (14)	20·639 (51)	19,080·945 (47,150)

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Agriculture and Irrigation.
OIL-SEEDS.

TABLE No. 22—*contd.*

(Area in hectares)

Taluka (1)	Year (2)	Groundnut (3)	Sesamum (4)	Safflower (5)	Linseed (6)	Castor (7)	Niger (8)	Total Oil-seeds (9)
Tasgaon—*contd.* ..	1959-60 .	18,085·417 (44,690)	0·809 (2)	641·023 (1,584)	1·619 (4)	5·666 (14)	16·187 (40)	18,750·721 (46,334)
	1960-61 ..	19,932·809 (49,255)	0·405 (1)	535·399 (1,323)	9·712 (24)	7·689 (19)	55·442 (137)	20,541·457 (50,759)
	1961-62 ..	19,329·827 (47,765)	19·830 (49)	512·332 (1,266)	5·261 (13)	31·565 (78)	51·800 (128)	19,950·615 (49,299)
Miraj	1956-57 ..	19,008·911 (46,972)	7·689 (19)	694·846 (1,717)	8·903 (22)	14·569 (36)	18·211 (45)	19,753·128 (48,811)
	1957-58 ..	21,014·939 (51,929)	4·856 (12)	722·769 (1,786)	11·736 (29)	27·518 (68)	18·211 (45)	21,800·030 (53,869)
	1958-59	22,855·856 (56,478)	13·759 (34)	589·223 (1,456)	19·830 (49)	31·970 (79)	96·720 (239)	23,607·358 (58,335)
	1959-60 ..	21,467·378 (53,047)	19·020 (47)	581·129 (1,436)	8·903 (22)	15·378 (38)	33·589 (83)	22,125·397 (54,673)
	1960-61 ..	22,008·443 (54,384)	13·355 (33)	438·680 (1,084)	8·498 (21)	27·923 (69)	46·134 (114)	22,543·033 (55,705)
	1961-62 ..	22,056·601 (54,503)	11·331 (28)	513·951 (1,270)	7·284 (18)	51·395 (127)	19·425 (48)	22,659·988 (55,994)

Shirala ..	1956-57 ..	3,604·943 (8,908)	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	32·779 (81)	3,637·722 (8,989)
	1957-58 ..	3,597·254 (8,889)	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	19·425 (48)	3,616·679 (8,937)
	1958-59 ..	3,450·353 (8,526)	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	23·472 (58)	3,473·824 (8,584)
	1959-60 ..	3,450 757 (8,527)	.. ..	.. ..	0 405 (1)	.. ..	19 425 (48)	3,470 587 (8,576)
	1960-61 ..	3,299·405 (8,153)	.. ..	0·405 (1)	.. ..	.. ..	29·542 (73)	3,329·352 (8,227)
	1961-62 ..	3,371·439 (8,331)	.. ..	2·023 (5)	.. ..	.. ..	13·759 (34)	3,387·222 (8,370)
District Total ..	1956-57 ..	72,022·777 (177,972)	1,406·284 (3,475)	8,318·725 (20,556)	93·482 (231)	78·914 (195)	280·852 (694)	82,201·034 (203,123)
	1957-58 ..	81,889·426 (202,353)	2,948·542 (7,286)	7,238·214 (17,886)	67·582 (167)	70·415 (174)	272·758 (674)	92,486·938 (228,540)
	1958-59 ..	80,776·944 (199,604)	2,501·364 (6,181)	7,196·936 (17,784)	91·459 (226)	51·800 (128)	417·231 (1,031)	91,035·734 (224,954)
	1959-60 .	75,644·716 (186,922)	1,801·257 (4,451)	5,661·962 (13,991)	135·974 (336)	72·034 (178)	468·626 (1,158)	83,784·570 (207,036)
	1960-61 ..	83,209·512 (205,615)	1,989·032 (4,915)	6,751·376 (16,683)	116·954 (289)	77·295 (191)	384·047 (949)	92,528·216 (228,642)
	1961-62 ..	81,151·279 (200,529)	1,958·275 (4,839)	6,640·492 (16,409)	83·365 (206)	104·814 (259)	549·563 (1,358)	90,487·789 (223,600)

Figures in brackets show area in acres.

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OIL-SEEDS.

Groundnut.

Groundnut (*bhuimug*) mostly grown as dry crop is produced all over the district. It can be grown on red loam, light sandy soil, alluvial loams and also on black soil. The soil is brought to fine tilth by ploughing and harrowing it well in advance. The field is harrowed two to three times after the first showers of rain. The seeds are sown mostly by dibbling method. In some parts of the district the seeds are drilled in June-July. After sowing the land is levelled to cover the seed. In about two months the crop is intercultured with a hoe. This is known as *kolapane*. One or two hand weedings are also done (*khurapane* or *bhangalane*). The varieties that are grown in the district are Kopaigaon Nos. 1 and 3, Karad 4—11, SB—11, Faizpur 1—5, and local varieties. *Uptya*, the early variety, is harvested in October by pulling the plants up by roots. It is mainly used for extraction of oil. The other two varieties are harvested in November-December either by pulling the plants with the help of light pick (*kudal*) or sometimes by using a plough or harrow. The pods are generally pulled out by hand in the field. Usually women workers are employed for pulling the plants and the pods. They are paid in kind, generally a part of the produce they collect. The pods are then dried in the sun. Usually groundnut crop is cultivated for oil. The seeds are eaten raw, boiled or parched. The branches as well as the leaves are used as cattle food. Most of the produce is purchased by the owners of the oil mills in the district for extracting oil. Most of the agriculturists in the district follow scientific methods in groundnut cultivation.

Safflower

It can be seen from the Table No. 22 that safflower (*karadi*) is the next important oil-seed grown in the district. It has yellow flowers and thorny leaves. Usually it is grown as a mixed crop with wheat only in every fourth or eighth row of the main crop. Sometimes the crop is sown on all the sides of the field to protect the main crop. The sowing is done through seed drill. The crop can be grown on light alluvial soils, loams and black cotton soil. *Karadi* oil is extracted either in oil mills or in *tel ghanis*. The oil-cake is used as a cattle feed and manure. The tender leaves are often used as a vegetable.

Sesamum

Sesamum (*til*) can be grown on a variety of soils. It requires hot weather and low rainfall. The crop is grown as a mixed crop with groundnut, tur, etc. Usually two varieties, black and white *til*, are grown in the district. The seeds are mixed with the main crop and are sown through seed drill. Oil is extracted from the seed which are also used for preparing sweetmeats. *Til* seeds are used in the performance of religious rites while celebrating *makar sankrant*, preparation of *til* seeds mixed with *gul* is distributed as a token of friendship.

Other oil seeds.

Among other minor oil-seeds grown in the district are coconut, linseed, castor and niger. Coconut plantations are found nearabout Tasgaon and Miraj. Coconut occupied 14.569 hectares (36 acres) in 1961-62. Linseed (*alshi* or *javas*) is usually grown as a mixed crop with grim, wheat, etc., on black

soil. The seeds are used for preparing chutney as well as for extracting oil. The cultivation of niger (*kārale*) does not involve considerable expenditure. One or two heavy harrowings are sufficient. The crop can be best grown on light red and brownish loams of good depth. Its oil is extensively used for culinary purposes. Castor oil on the other hand is used as a lubricant and has good demand in soap and pharmaceutical industries. Its oil-cake forms an excellent manure for sugarcane.

DRUGS AND NARCOTICS.

Tobacco and betel leaves are the only two important drugs and narcotics grown in the district. Out of the total area of 93,33.273 hectares (23,063 acres) under drugs and narcotics in 1961, tobacco occupied 84,68.459 hectares (20,926 acres) while betel leaves occupied 8,64.814 hectares (2,137 acres). Major portion of these drugs and narcotics is produced in Miraj, Walwa and Tasgaon talukas.

The following table shows distribution of area under drugs and narcotics in the district from 1956-57 to 1961-62.

TABLE No. 23.

AREA UNDER DRUGS AND NARCOTICS IN SANGLI DISTRICT, 1956-57 TO 1961-62

Area in hectares

Taluka	Year	Tobacco	Betel Leaves	Total Drugs and Narcotics
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Khanapur	1956-57	71·225 (176)	15·378 (38)	86·603 (214)
	1957-58	86·603 (214)	15·378 (38)	101·981 (252)
	1958-59	79·723 (197)	15·378 (38)	95·101 (235)
	1959-60	84·984 (210)	14·973 (37)	99·957 (247)
	1960-61	63·940 (158)	14·973 (37)	78·914 (195)
	1961-62	103·195 (255)	16·997 (42)	120·192 (297)
Tasgaon ..	1956-57	917·423 (2,267)	85·389 (211)	1,002·812 (2,478)
	1957-58	945·751 (2,337)	86·603 (214)	1,032·354 (2,551)
	1958-59	880·597 (2,176)	82·556 (204)	963·152 (2,380)
	1959-60	1,175·613 (2,905)	71·225 (176)	1,246·837 (3,081)
	1960-61	1,121·789 (2,772)	72·034 (178)	1,193·824 (2,950)
	1961-62	1,540·640 (3,807)	70·820 (175)	1,611·460 (3,982)
Miraj ..	1956-57	4,450·736 (10,998)	632·929 (1,564)	5,083·665 (12,562)
	1957-58	4,071·141 (10,060)	618·765 (1,529)	4,689·906 (11,589)
	1958-59	3,428·904 (8,473)	652·758 (1,613)	4,081·663 (10,086)
	1959-60	4,573·356 (11,301)	529·329 (1,308)	5,102·686 (12,609)
	1960-61	4,580·236 (11,318)	500·596 (1,237)	5,080·833 (12,555)
	1961-62	4,464·901 (11,033)	567·370 (1,402)	5,032·270 (12,435)
Walwa ..	1956-57	2,492·866 (6,160)	201·129 (497)	2,693·995 (6,657)
	1957-58	2,182·067 (5,392)	188·988 (467)	2,371·055 (5,859)
	1958-59	1,980·938 (4,895)	158·232 (391)	2,139·170 (5,286)
	1959-60	2,178·020 (5,382)	162·279 (401)	2,340·299 (5,783)
	1960-61	2,298·212 (5,679)	122·620 (303)	2,420·832 (5,982)
	1961-62	2,288·094 (5,654)	139·617 (345)	2,427·711 (5,999)

Figures in brackets show area in acres.

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DRUGS AND NARCOTICS.

TABLE No. 23—*contd.*

(Area in hectares)

Taluka (1)	Year (2)	Tobacco (3)	Betel Leaves (4)	Total Drugs and Narcotics (5)
Shirala .	1956-57	84·579 (209)	3·642 (9)	88·221 (218)
	1957-58	52·609 (130)	2·833 (7)	55·442 (137)
	1958-59	46·134 (114)	3·237 (8)	49·371 (122)
	1959-60	63·131 (156)	1·619 (4)	64·750 (160)
	1960-61	57·870 (143)	2·023 (5)	59·893 (148)
	1961-62	51·800 (128)	1·619 (4)	53·418 (132)
Jath .	1956-57	28·328 (70)	55·847 (138)	84·175 (208)
	1957-58	13·759 (34)	69·201 (171)	82·960 (205)
	1958-59	14 569 (36)	63·131 (156)	77·700 (192)
	1959-60	20·234 (60)	68·796 (170)	89·031 (220)
	1960-61	18·615 (46)	64 750 (160)	83·365 (206)
	1961-62	19·830 (49)	68·391 (169)	88·221 (218)
District Total.	1956-57	8,045·158 (19,880)	994·313 (2,457)	9,039·471 (22,337)
	1957-58	7,351·930 (18,167)	981·768 (2,426)	8,333·699 (20,593)
	1958-59	6,430·865 (15,891)	975·293 (2,410)	7,406·158 (18,301)
	1959-60	8,095·339 (20,004)	848·222 (2,096)	8,943·561 (22,100)
	1960-61	8,140·66' (20,116)	776·997 (1,920)	8,917·661 (22,036)
	1961-62	8,468·459 (20,926)	864·814 (2,137)	9,333·273 (23,063)

Tobacco.

Tobacco (*tambakhu*) mixed with *chuna* (lime) when chewed has an intoxicating effect. To some extent it exerts a mild narcotic effect on the human system. This tropical crop is cultivated during the *kharif* season. Black cotton soil and alluvial soil found in river valleys are suitable for tobacco. The seedlings are first raised in well prepared seed-beds. The seed is broadcast in the seed-plot in the middle of July after some showers of rains. The seedlings are usually protected by covering the seed-beds with thorny bushes and straw. After about a month and a half the seedlings are transplanted with two to three feet spacings. Three to four waterings are given with an interval of about fifteen days. The flowering shoots are nipped off and only the well grown-up leaves are maintained. When the leaves become yellowish with brown spots the plants are taken ready for harvest. Usually the leaves are cut off from January to March. The leaves are then dried in the sun. Powder of some spices like clove is mixed with water and sprayed over the leaves. These leaves are then kept in bundles and are kept closed in covered pits. After some days the bundles are taken out. The tobacco is then either used for chewing or for making snuff. In rural areas the *misari,* burnt tobacco powder, is extensively used for cleaning the teeth.

Betel leaves.

Pan or *nagvel* is chewed along with areca nut, *chuna, kath* and sometimes tobacco. The leaves are said to have digestive properties and are also good for health due to their calcium contents.

Figures in brackets show area in acres.

Betel leaves.

It is a garden crop and requires clayey and alluvial soils and abundant supply of water. The *panmala,* garden of betel leaves, is usually protected by thorny hedges. It grows under shades of *shevri, pangera* trees. Inside the *panmala*, rows of *papaya,* plantain trees and *malilimb* are grown.

The best shoots of the older plants are planted. The creeper is tied to the *shevri* by a sheath of the stock of the plantain. Every year new layers of good earth are added. Leaf-picking is started after about two years. The picking of leaves at short intervals is locally known as *khuda.* The leaves are picked together with the petiole. The picker with the help of sharpened nail fixed on his right thumb cuts off the leaf from the stem. Though it is a cash crop, the cultivation of betel-vine is very costly and requires constant watch. The leaves are counted in *kavali* and *dag.* It is necessary to protect the crop from fierce wind and hail storm.

SUGARCANE.

Sugarcane is one of the most important cash crops of the district. It occupied an area of 10,289.951 hectares (25,427 acres) in 1961-62. The expansion of area under sugarcane plantation which is concentrated roundabout the sugar factory is due to the assured demand from the Shetkari Sahakari Sakhar Karkhana Ltd., Sangli. The sugar factory affords various facilities to the cultivators for the scientific cultivation of the crop.

Sugarcane (*oos*) is an irrigated tropical crop and requires abundant supply of water and moist hot climate. Black soils of various depths, especially medium well drained soils about 0.609 to 0.914 m. (two to three feet) in depth, are best suited. The crop requires one complete year to get ready for harvest. Usually canes are planted from December to January and are ready for harvest in February-March. Different varieties of sugarcane for different types of soils have been supplied by the Sugarcane Research Station of Padegaon in Satara district. Of these various varieties Co. 740 is used on a very large scale. The cultivation of the crop consists of various stages like ploughing and harrowing the land well in advance, laying of ridges and furrows of the finely tilthed land, periodical waterings, manuring and protecting it from animals and pests and diseases. The furrows are made at 0.914 to 1.524 m. (3 to 5 feet) distance. The whole plot is again divided into beds or *wakure.* The furrows are irrigated before planting. The top of the sugarcane is removed and the remaining is cut into pieces. The piece is locally known as *pere.* These pieces are then carefully laid in the furrows. Such piece must have at least three eyebuds.

Gul, sugar and *kakvi* are prepared from sugarcane juice. Cane is crushed in iron crushers and boiled in iron pan for preparing *gul.* At times the tops of sugarcane (*wade*) are used as cattle feed. The dry sugarcane leaves and the squeezed canes are used as fuel for boiling the juice.

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SUGARCANE.

The following table gives the area under sugarcane in the district from *1956-57* to *1961-62*.

TABLE No. 24.

AREA UNDER SUGARCANE IN SANGLI DISTRICT, 1956-57 TO 1961-62.

Taluka	Year	Sugarcane	
		Acres	Hectares
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Khanapur	1956-57	806	326·177
	1957-58	913	369·478
	1958-59	1,006	407·114
	1959-60	1,213	490·884
	1960-61	2,080	841·747
	1961-62	2,373	960·320
Jath	1956-57	687	278·019
	1957-58	865	350·053
	1958-59	825	333·866
	1959-60	1,077	435·847
	1960-61	1,225	495·740
	1961-62	1,147	464·175
Shirala	1956-57	1,297	524·878
	1957-58	1,621	655·996
	1958-59	1,684	681·491
	1959-60	2,540	1,027·902
	1960-61	2,957	1,196·656
	1961-62	3,257	1,318·062
Miraj	1956-57	1,664	673·397
	1957-58	2,128	861·172
	1958-59	2,642	1,069·180
	1959-60	3,144	1,272·333
	1960-61	3,949	1,598·105
	1961-62	4,641	1,878·148
Tasgaon	1956-57	1,180	477·529
	1957-58	1,504	608·648
	1958-59	1,964	794·803
	1959-60	2,087	844·580
	1960-61	3,836	1,552·375
	1961-62	4,806	1,944·921
Walwa	1956-57	4,304	1,741·768
	1957-58	4,281	1,732·461
	1958-59	4,721	1,910·523
	1959-60	5,603	2,267·455
	1960-61	8,124	3,287·669
	1961-62	9,023	3,724·325
District Total	1956-57	9,938	4,021·768
	1957-58	11,312	4,577·808
	1958-59	12,842	5,196·[illegible]77
	1959-60	15,664	6,339·001
	1960-61	22,171	8,972·293
	1961-62	25,427	10,285·251

Condiments and spices are the important cash crops of the district. The total area under condiments and spices in 1961-62 was 10,264.860 hectares (25,365 acres). The principal condiments and spices are chillis, turmeric, coriander and garlic. These crops are generally grown as irrigated crops.

The following table shows the distribution of area under condiments and spices in the district from 1958-59 to 1961-62.

TABLE No 25.

TALUKAWISE AREA UNDER CONDIMENTS AND SPICES IN SANGLI DISTRICT, 1958-59 TO 1961-62.

Area in hectares*

Taluka (1)	Year (2)	Chillis (3)	Turmeric (4)	Coriander (5)	Garlic (6)
Tasgaon	1958-59 ..	733·291 (1,812)	1,437 849 (3,553)	87·007 (215)	30·756 (76)
	1959-60 ..	883 025 (2,182)	1,168 733 (2,888)	83·770 (207)	31·970 (79)
	1960-61 ..	962·748 (2,379)	1,112 482 (2,749)	82·151 (203)	32·375 (80)
	1961-62 .	58·254 (2,615)	1,239·553 (3,063)	68·797 (170)	25·495 (63)
Khanapur .	1958-59 .	980·959 (2,424)	962·343 (2,378)	240·788 (595)	42·087 (104)
	1959-60 ..	1,064·729 (2,631)	942·514 (2,329)	249·286 (616)	42·897 (106)
	1960-61 ..	1,112·077 (2,748)	942·514 (2,329)	186·560 (461)	38·040 (94)
	1961-62 ..	1,195·847 (2,955)	1,016·571 (2,512)	225·410 (557)	50·181 (124)
Walwa	1958-59 ..	1,217·700 (3,009)	403·472 (997)	233·501 (577)	.. ..
	1959-60 ..	1,265·858 (3,128)	373·120 (922)	234·718 (580)	21·448 (53)
	1960-61 ..	1,333·440 (3,295)	391·736 (968)	137·188 (339)	18·615 (46)
	1961-62 ..	1,320·086 (3,262)	330·628 (817)	95·506 (236)	19·829 (49)
Shirala	1958-59 ..	190·607 (471)	46·943 (116)	6·475 (16)	2·023 (5)
	1959-60 ..	225 815 (558)	47·753 (118)	1·619 (4)	3·642 (9)
	1960-61 ..	250·096 (618)	38·040 (94)	0·809 (2)	3·237 (8)
	1961-62 ..	180·490 (446)	29·947 (74)	0 405 (1)	3·642 (9)

* Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

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CONDIMENTS AND SPICES

TABLE No. 25—*contd.*

Area in hectares*

Taluka (1)	Year (2)	Chillis (3)	Turmeric (4)	Coriander (5)	Garlic (6)
Miraj .. .	1958-59 .	1,144·857 (2,829)	639·808 (1,581)	86·198 (213)	128·690 (318)
	1959-60 .	1,318·872 (3,259)	614·313 (1,518)	87·007 (215)	181·299 (448)
	1960-61	1,242·386 (3,070)	612 290 (1,513)	59·489 (147)	130·309 (322)
	1961-62 ..	1,504·623 (3,718)	659·233 (1,629)	57·061 (141)	165·112 (408)
Jath	1958-59 .	741 385 (1,832)	218·935 (541)	21·448 (53)	22·662 (56)
	1959-60 ..	588 009 (1,453)	262·236 (648)	21·448 (53)	33·994 (84)
	1960-61 ..	593·270 (1,466)	333·866 (825)	44·920 (111)	43·301 (107)
	1961-62 .	577·082 (1,426)	320·106 (791)	74·057 (183)	45·729 (113)
District Total .	1958-59 ..	5,008·799 (12,377)	3,709·352 (9,166)	675·421 (1,669)	226·219 (559)
	1959-60 .	5,346·307 (13,211)	3,408·670 (8,423)	677·849 (1,675)	315·250 (779)
	1960-61 .	5,494·017 (13,576)	3,455·209 (8,538)	511·118 (1,263)	265·878 (657)
	1961-62 ..	5,836·381 (14,422)	3,596·040 (8,886)	521·235 (1,288)	309·989 (766)

Chillis

Chillis (*mirchi*) occupied 5,836.381 hectares (14,422 acres) in 1961-62. The crop is grown almost all over the district. It can be grown on a wide range of soils and under different climatic conditions. The chilli crop can be raised in both the seasons, *kharif* as well as *rabi*. Generally chillis are to a large extent grown as a single crop. The seedlings are first raised in May in a manured seed plot and transplanted after about a month. Usually the seedlings are planted in rows at a distance of about 0·457 m. (one and a half feet) around the plant. It begins to bear from within three months of its transplantation. Both, green as well as ripe chillis are picked. The picking of chillis goes on for three to five months. Thrips are a serious pest of the crop. They suck the sap of leaves and stems. The pest can be checked by spraying the crop with tobacco decoction.

*Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

CONDIMENTS AND SPICES.

Turmeric.

Turmeric (*Halad*) occupied 3,596.039 hectares (8,886 acres) in 1961-62 in the district. Turmeric is used as a spice and also as a dye. The selected pieces of turmeric rhizomes having two or three buds are planted in a line at a distance of about 0.305 m (one foot) between the two plants. The crop is periodically irrigated. It is ready for harvesting after about ten months since plantation. The crop is uprooted. It is first boiled and then dried in the sun.

Coriander.

Coriander (*kothimbir*) occupied 521.235 hectares (1,288 acres) in 1961-62. The leaves of the seedlings are used as vegetables. The ripe seeds of coriander locally known as *dhane* possess medicinal properties. The crop is many a time grown as a mixed crop with groundnut. The seed is either mixed with groundnut seed and then drilled or sometimes it is drilled separately while drilling the main crop at a distance of about 0.914 m. (three feet) between the two rows. This method is locally known as *mogane*. The crop is ready for harvesting within three months.

Garlic.

Garlic (*lasun*) is grown in the district on a small scale. Usually it is grown as a single crop wherever irrigation facilities are available. The little bulbs are separated and are broadcast in the beds specially prepared for irrigation. The bulbs are then lightly covered with soil. The crop is ready for harvesting within five to six months. The bulbs are uprooted either by hand or with a very light pick-axe.

FIBRES.

The fibre crops are grown on a very small area in the district. The important among them are cotton, sann-hemp and *ambadi*.

The following table gives the area under fibre crops in the district from 1956-57 to 1961-62.

TABLE No. 26.

AREA UNDER FIBRES IN SANGLI DISTRICT FROM 1956-57 TO 1961-62.

Area in hectares *

Taluka	Year	Cotton	Sann-hemp (Bombay Hemp)	Ambadi (Deccan Hemp)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Tasgaon ..	1956-57 .	595·698 (1,472)	24·686 (61)	15·783 (39)
	1957-58 ..	467·003 (1,154)	40·873 (101)	6·070 (15)
	1958-59 .	383·238 (947)	55·037 (136)	6·475 (16)
	1959-60 ..	290·564 (718)	41·278 (102)	4·856 (12)

*Figures in brackets show area in acres.

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FIBRES.

TABLE No. 26—*contd.*

Area in hectares*

Taluka (1)	Year (2)	Cotton (3)	Sann-hemp (Bombay Hemp) (4)	Ambadi (Deccan Hemp) (5)
Tasgaon—*contd*	1960-61 ..	232·290 (574)	44·515 (110)	21·044 (52)
	1961-62 ..	222·577 (550)	27·519 (68)	9·712 (24)
Jath ..	1956-57 ..	7,508·139 (18,553)	.. ..	41·683 (103)
	1957-58 .	3,696·402 (9,134)	0·809 (2)	12·950 (32)
	1958-59	3,925·859 (9,701)	.. ..	5·261 (13)
	1959-60 .	1,938·041 (4,789)	6·475 (16)	6·070 (15)
	1960-61	2,551·545 (6,305)	.. ..	9·308 (23)
	1961-62 ..	3,036·764 (7,504)	26·709 (66)	14·568 (36)
Walwa .	1956-57 ..	594 079 (1,468)	249·286 (616)	15·783 (39)
	1957-58 ..	532·971 (1,317)	312·013 (771)	10·926 (27)
	1958-59 .	666·113 (1,646)	405·495 (1,002)	11·331 (28)
	1959-60 ..	284·899 (704)	338·722 (837)	21·853 (54)
	1960-61 ..	243·216 (601)	355·314 (878)	16·592 (41)
	1961-62 .	206·390 (510)	295·016 (729)	15·378 (38)
Miraj .. .	1956-57 ..	1,982 961 (4,900)	15·378 (38)	15·783 (39)
	1957-58 . .	1,919·830 (4,744)	16·187 (40)	16·997 (42)
	1958-59 ..	2,317·637 (5,727)	40·064 (99)	6·880 (17)
	1959-60 ..	1,605·389 (3,967)	54·228 (134)	10·522 (26)
	1960-61 ..	1,257·359 (3,107)	42·492 (105)	6·070 (15)

* Figures in brackets show area in acres.

TABLE No. 26—*contd.*

Area in hectares *

Taluka (1)	Year (2)	Cotton (3)	Sann-hemp (Bombay Hemp) (4)	Ambadi (Deccan Hemp) (5)
Miraj—*contd.*	1961-62 ..	1,248·861 (3,086)	32·779 (81)	6·475 (16)
Shirala.. ..	1956-57 ..	.. ..	13·355 (33)	0·809 (2)
	1957-58 ..	1·214 (3)	23·067 (57)	0·809 (2)
	1958-59 ..	.. ..	16·997 (42)	0·405 (1)
	1959-60 ..	.. ..	25·495 (63)	.. ..
	1960-61 ..	.. ..	5·666 (14)	0·405 (1)
	1961-62 ..	0·405 (1)	9·308 (23)	.. ..
Khanapur ..	1956-57 ..	291·779 (721)	9·712 (24)	14·568 (36)
	1957-58 ..	328·200 (811)	5·666 (14)	12·140 (30)
	1958-59 ..	350·053 (865)	5·666 (14)	11·736 (29)
	1959-60 ..	524·878 (1,297)	12·950 (32)	12·140 (30)
	1960-61 ..	547·540 (1,353)	23·067 (57)	6·475 (16)
	1961-62 ..	1,124·622 (2,779)	31·970 (79)	5·261 (13)
District Total..	1956-57 ..	10,972·656 (27,114)	312·417 (772)	104·409 (258)
	1957-58 ..	6,945·626 (17,163)	398·616 (985)	59·893 (148)
	1958-59 ..	7,642·900 (18,886)	523·259 (1,293)	42·087 (104)
	1959-60 .	4,643·772 (11,475)	479·148 (1,184)	55·442 (137)
	1960-61 ..	4,831·951 (11,940)	471·054 (1,164)	59·893 (148)
	1961-62 .	5,839·619 (14,430)	423·301 (1,046)	51·395 (127)

*Figures in brackets show area in acres.

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FIBRES.

Cotton.

Cotton (*kapus*) gives maximum yield when it is grown on well drained, medium and lighter type of soils and deep black soils. The crop requires about 508 to 762 mm. (20 to 30 inches) of rain. The land is brought to fine tilth by ploughing and two to three harrowings. The varieties of cotton cultivated in the district are *devraj* and *laxmi*. The seed is sown either by dibbling method or with a drill in June-July. The distance between the plants in the row is about 0.305 m. (one foot) but varies from field to field. The spacing between any two rows varies between 0.914 to 1.525 m (three to five feet). In August-September in addition to two or three hand weedings, interculturing is done about three times with small blade hoes. The bolls open towards the end of October and cotton is picked during November to December in three pickings with the interval of ten to fifteen days

Sann-Hemp.

Sann-hemp or Bombay hemp (*tag*) is the next important fibre crop grown in the district. It occupied 423.301 hectares (1,046 acres) in 1961-62. It can be grown on a variety of soils of black and laterite soils, clayey loams and heavy types and requires moderate rainfall. Its leaves provide excellent green manure and are used as fodder. When the crop is to be grown for green manuring, it is sown thick in the second fortnight of June. It has a quick growth. After about two to three months, the crop is levelled by a heavy log roller and covered with soil by ploughing the field. When the crop is sown for the production of fibre it is harvested after about four to five months. The stalks are cut close to the ground kept in the sun and when the leaves are stripped off they are tied in bundles and placed in water for retting. After about ten days the stalks are taken out. The fibre is peeled off and is beaten on stone. The bark is then washed in water

Deccan Hemp

Deccan hemp (*ambadi*) is a very minor fibre crop grown in the district. It occupied 51.395 hectares (127 acres) in 1961-62. It is used both as an oil-seed and as a fibre crop. It is grown more or less as a mixed crop usually with *bajri* and pulses. The tender leaves are used as a vegetable. Its bark yields valuable fibre.

FRUITS.

The most common fruits grown in the district are banana and guava. The other fruits like mangoes, sour lime, mandarine orange, pomegranate, grape and custard apple are grown on irrigated garden lands.

Banana.

Banana (*kele*) is extensively grown in the district. It occupied 608.647 hectares (1,504 acres) in 1961-62. It requires well drained, deep retentive clayey soil and rainfall varying between 1.016 and 2.540 mm. (40 inches and 100 inches). In the low rainfall area, the crop requires very liberal irrigation. Land is ploughed and two or three harrowings are also given well in advance. Suckers, *kand* are planted in June-July in pits of 0.028 m^3. (one cubic foot), 2.438 or 3.048 m (eight or ten feet) apart in squares. Each pit is

FRUITS.

Banana.

supplied with farm yard manure mixed with ash. The crop has to be protected against high winds and frost. The operations like interculturing, repairs of irrigation beds, manuring and some times earthing up give maximum yield. The crop matures within a year and a half. Each bunch, *ghad*, contains about 125 bananas. The varieties grown in the district comprise *rajel*, *deshi*, *son* and improved *basarai*, besides local ones. Banana is a nutritious fruit. Its flower, *kelful*, is used as vegetable. The juice of the inner part of the stem is used in preparing *papads*.

Guava.

Guava, *peru*, is the next important fruit crop in the district. It occupied 153.780 hectares (380 acres) in 1961-62. Guava trees grow on a wide range of soils. The clay soils, which encourage vegetable growth only, and the shallow soils are unsuitable for the crop. The seedlings from nurseries are transplanted in pits of 0.057 m^3 (two cubic feet) each duly filled with soil and manure and about 6.096 m. (twenty feet) apart. Sometimes fruits of good quality are taken by grafting method. The tree gives fruit after about three years. The guava garden, *bag*, lasts from 15 to 20 years. The crop requires to be protected against bats, crows and parrots.

Mango.

Mango, *amba*, occupied 38.040 hectares (94 acres) in the district in 1961-62. Mango trees are grown on a variety of soils. Seedlings raised from mango stones or the grafted seedlings are planted in the pits of 0.85 m^3 (3 cubic feet) each and about 12.192 m. (40 feet) apart. The pits are filled with good soil. The tree bears fruit after about five years and continues up to 30 to 50 years. *Raival, Payari, rajapuri* and other local varieties are commonly grown in the district. *Ambras*, juice of ripe mango, *lonche*, and *gulamba* are the popular eatables prepared from mangoes.

Other Fruits.

Other minor fruits grown in the district include sour lime, mandarine orange, pomegranate, custard apple and grape.

The acreage under grape is about 250. The selection variety of grape is grown on large scale. Other varieties grown are (1) *bhokari*, (2) *Bangalore* purple, (3) *anabeshahi*, (4) Thomson seedless, (5) *kali sahebi* and (6) *pandhari sahebi*.

VEGETABLES.

Vegetables, that are commonly grown in the district, include sweet potato, carrot, onion, brinjal, potato and fenugreek. The total area under these, in the district, was 2,429.735 hectares (6,004 acres) in 1961-62. The following table shows the distribution of area under vegetables in the district from 1956-57 to 1961-62.

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TABLE No. 27.

AREA UNDER VEGETABLES IN SANGLI DISTRICT FROM 1956-67 TO 1961-62

Area in hectares*

Taluka (1)	Year (2)	Potato (3)		Sweet potato (4)		Onion (5)		Carrot (6)		Radish (7)		Cabbage (8)	
Walwa ..	1956-57	(20)	8·094	(154)	62·322	(94)	38·040	(50)	20,234	(1)	0·405	(9)	3·642
	1957-58	(23)	9·308	(177)	71·629	(113)	45·729	(36)	14·569	(2)	0·809	(2)	0·809
	1958-59	(23)	9·308	(192)	77·700	(115)	46·539	(41)	16·592	(2)	0·809	(2)	0·809
	1959-60	(21)	8·496	(167)	67·583	(121)	48·967	(39)	15·783	(6)	2·428	(2)	0·809
	1960-61	(21)	8·496	(134)	54·228	(113)	45·729	(37)	14·973	(3)	1·214	..	
	1961-62	(8)	3·237	(123)	49·776	(130)	52·609	(37)	14·973	(2)	0·809	..	
Miraj ..	1956-57	(1)	0·405	(619)	250·500	(131)	53·014	(267)	108·051	(4)	1·619	..	
	1957-58	(4)	1·619	(674)	272·758	(197)	79·723	(243)	98·339	..		..	
	1958-59	(16)	6·475	(595)	240·788	(196)	79·318	(278)	112·503	..		(3)	1·214
	1959-60	(17)	6·880	(514)	208·008	(179)	42·439	(237)	95·910	(3)	1·214	..	
	1960-61	(29)	11·736	(485)	196·273	(165)	66·773	(272)	110·074	..		(2)	0·809
	1961-62	(53)	21·448	(521)	210·841	(196)	79·318	(269)	108'860	..		..	
Tasgaon ..	1956-57	(8)	3·237	(160)	64·750	(80)	32·375	(74)	29·947	..		(1)	0·405
	1957-58	(13)	5·261	(217)	87·817	(155)	62·726	(99)	40·064	(1)	0·405	(2)	0·809
	1958-59	(13)	5·261	(219)	88·626	(160)	64·750	(111)	44·920	..		(2)	0·809
	1959-60	(12)	4·856	(206)	83·365	(189)	76·486	(112)	45·325	(1)	0·405	(1)	0·405
	1960-61	(32)	12·950	(230)	93·078	(94)	38·040	(126)	50·990	(1)	0·405	..	
	1961-62	(9)	3·642	(191)	77·295	(121)	48·967	(108)	43·706	..		..	
Khanapur ..	1956-57	(124)	50·181	(792)	320·511	(181)	73·248	(351)	142·045	(1)	0·405	..	
	1957-58	(148)	59·893	(928)	375·548	(190)	76·890	(435)	176·038	..		(1)	0·405
	1958-59	(132)	53·419	(756)	305·942	(143)	57·870	(407)	164·707	..		(3)	1·214
	1959-60	(152)	61·512	(809)	327·391	(228)	92·268	(405)	163·898	..		(8)	3·237

	1960-61	(399)	161·470	(619)	250·500	(189)	76 486	(368)	148 924	(1)	0·405		
	1961-62	(256)	103·600	(713)	288·541	(245)	99·148	(469)	189·798	..		(1)	0·405
Jath ..	1956-57	(1)	0·405	(999)	404·281	(114)	46·134	(85)	34·398	(1)	0·405	(2)	0·809
	1957-58	..		(750)	303·514	(107)	43·301	(41)	16·592	..		..	
	1958-59	(7)	2·833	(736)	297·849	(106)	42·897	(95)	38·445	..		..	
	1959-60	(9)	3·642	(852)	344·792	(117)	47·348	(168)	67·987	..		(1)	0·405
	1960-61	(19)	7·689	(985)	398·615	(156)	63·131	(300)	121·810	..		(1)	0·405
	1961-62	(50)	20·234	(911)	368·669	(178)	72·034	(300)	121·406	(2)	0·809	(2)	0·809
Shirala ..	1956-57	(10)	4·047	(40)	16·187	(44)	17·806	(27)	10·926	(2)	0·809	..	
	1957-58	(1)	0·405	(38)	15·378	(52)	21·044	(29)	11·736	(1)	0·405	..	
	1958-59	(13)	5·261	(44)	17 806	(47)	19·020	(25)	10·117	(1)	0·405	(2)	0·809
	1959-60	(4)	1·619	(44)	17·806	(62)	25·090	(46)	18·615	..		(2)	0·809
	1960-61	(2)	0·809	(32)	12·950	(46)	18·615	(30)	12·141	..		(2)	0·809
	1961-62	(3)	1·214	(29)	11·736	(50)	20·234	(17)	6·880	..		(1)	0·405
District Total	1956-57	(164)	66·368	(2,764)	1,118·552	(644)	260·618	(854)	345·602	(9)	3·642	(12)	4·856
	1957-58	(189)	76·486	(2,784)	1,126·646	(814)	329·414	(883)	357·338	(4)	1·619	(5)	2·023
	1958-59	(204)	82·556	(2,542)	1,028·712	(767)	310 394	(957)	387·284	(3)	1·214	(12)	4·856
	1959-60	(215)	87·007	(2,592)	1,048 946	(896)	362·598	(1,007)	407·519	(10)	4·047	(14)	5·665
	1960-61	(502)	203·152	(2,485)	1,005·645	(763)	308·775	(1,134)	458·914	(5)	2·023	(6)	2·428
	1961-62	(379)	153·376	(2,488)	1,006·859	(920)	372·311	(1,200)	485·623	(4)	1·619	(4)	1·619

*Figures in brackets show area in acres.

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TABLE No. 27—*contd.*

Area in hectares*

Taluka (1)	Year (2)	Brinjal (9)		Tomato (10)		Fenugreek (11)		Bhendi (12)		Other vegetables (13)		Total vegetables (14)	
Walwa	1956-57	(102)	41·278			(6)	2·428	(6)	2·428	(90)	36·422	(532)	215·293
	1957-58	(124)	50·181	(4)	1·619	(8)	3·237	(4)	1·619	(16)	6·475	(509)	205·985
	1958-59	(120)	45·907			(9)	3·642	(1)	0·405	(26)	10·522	(532)	215·293
	1959-60	(143)	57·870	(4)	1·619	(10)	4·047	(1)	0·405	(13)	5·261	(527)	213·269
	1960-61	(115)	46·539	(10)	4·047	(3)	1·214	(2)	0·809	(17)	6,880	(455)	184·132
	1961-62	(140)	57·061	(1)	0·405	(9)	3·642	(2)	0·809	(26)	10·522	(479)	193·844
Miraj	1956-57	(187)	75·657			(18)	7·284	(4)	1·619	(40)	16·187	(1,267)	512·737
	1957-58	(242)	97·934	(13)	5·261	(42)	16·997	(8)	3·237	(39)	[illegible]	(1,482)	599·745
	1958-59	(223)	90·245	(20)	8·094	(55)	[illegible]	(16)	6·475	(31)	12·545	(1,433)	579·915
	1959-60	(243)	98·339	(15)	6·070	(45)	18·211	(11)	4·451	(39)	15·783	(1,303)	527·506
	1960-61	(218)	88·221			(47)	19·020	(9)	3·642	(27)	10·925	(1,254)	507·476
	1961-62	(227)	91·864	(7)	2·833	(24)	9·712	(9)	3·642	(24)	9·712	(1,330)	538·232
Tasgaon	1956-57	(65)	26·305	..		(4)	1·619	..		(1)	0·405	(393)	159·041
	1957-58	(84)	33·993	(1)	0·405	(5)	2·023	..		..		(577)	233·504
	1958-59	(104)	42·087	..		(10)	4·047			..		(619)	250·500
	1959-60	(130)	52·609	(1)	0·405	(7)	2·833	..		..		(659)	266·688
	1960-61	(84)	33·993	(1)	0·405	(11)	4·451	(1)	0·405	(4)	1·609	(584)	236·336
	1961-62	(87)	35·208	(2)	0·809	(3)	1·214	(1)	0·405	(37)	14·973	(559)	226·219
Khanapur	1956-57	(88)	35·612	..		..		..		(8)	3·237	(1,545)	625·240
	1957-58	(115)	46·539	..		(16)	6·475	(4)	1·619	(9)	3·642	(1,846)	747·050
	1958-59	(133)	53·823	..		(13)	5·261	(2)	0·809	(12)	4·856	(1,601)	647·902
	1959-60	(138)	55·847	..		(30)	12·141	(6)	2·428	(1)	0·405	(1,777)	719·127
	1960-61	(100)	40·468	..		(13)	5·261	(4)	1·619	(2)	0·809	(1,696)	686·347
	1961-62	(139)	56·251	..		(22)	8·903	(5)	2·023	..		(1,854)	750·288

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Jath ..	1956-57	(124)	50·181	..		(4)	1·619	(7)	2·833	(3)	1·214	(1,340)	542·279
	1957-58	(96)	38·850	(4)	1·619	(1)	0·405	(5)	2·023	(19)	7·689	(1,023)	413·994
	1958-59	(92)	37·231	(1)	0·405	(3)	1·214	(3)	1·214	(3)	1·214	(1,046)	423·301
	1959-60	(96)	38·850	(8)	3·237	(5)	2·023	(6)	2·428	(9)	3·642	(1,269)	513·546
	1960-61	(139)	56·251	(4)	1·619	(14)	5·666	(22)	8·903	(19)	7·689	(1,660)	671·779
	1961-62	(148)	59·893	(1)	0·405	(20)	8·094	(20)	8·094	(20)	8·094	(1,652)	668·541
Shirala ..	1956-57	(32)	12·950	..		..		..		(3)	1·214	(158)	63·940
	1957-58	(32)	12·950	..		..		..		(2)	0·809	(155)	62·726
	1958-59	(28)	11·331	..		..		..				(160)	64·750
	1959-60	(35)	14·164	..		..		..		(3)	1·214	(196)	79·318
	1960-61	(27)	10·926	..		..		..		(1)	0·405	(140)	56·656
	1961-62	(29)	11·736	..		..		..		(1)	0·405	(130)	52·609
District Total	1956-57	(594)	240·383	..		(32)	12·950	(17)	6·880	(145)	58·679	(5,235)	2,118·531
	1957-58	(693)	280·447	(22)*	8·903	(72)	29·137	(21)	8·498	(105)	42·492	(5,592)	2,263·004
	1958-59	(701)	283·685	(21)	8·498	([illegible])	36·422	(22)	8·903	(72)	29·137	(5,391)	2,181·662
	1959-60	(765)	317·678	(28)	11·331	(97)	39·254	(24)	9·712	(65)	26·304	(5,731)	2,319·255
	1960-61	(653)	276·400	(15)	6·070	(88)	35·612	(36)	15·578	(70)	28·328	(5,789)	2,342·727
	1961-62	(771)	312·013	(11)	4·451	(78)	31·565	(37)	11·973	(103)	45·700	(6,004)	2,429·735

*Figures in brackets show area in acres.

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VEGETABLES.

Sweet potato.

Sweet potato, *ratali*, can be grown on a variety of soils. It covered an area of 1,006.859 hectares (2,488 acres) in 1961-62. White and red *ratali* are the two common varieties grown in the district. The land is brought to fine tilth by repeated ploughings and harrowings. It is then made into ridges and furrows keeping a distance of about 0.762 m (two and a half feet) between the two furrows. This is locally known as *sarya ghalane*. The cuttings of the vines *ratalvel* having three or four nodes are planted on both the sides of the *sari*. About ten waterings are given. The crop matures within six months. The tubers are taken out by hand-digging. The *ratali* are very often used as a food. They are eaten boiled, roasted or raw. The *ratalvel* is used as a fodder for cattle.

Carrot.

Carrot, *gajar*, occupied an area of 485.623 hectares (1,200 acres) in 1961-62. It is grown on medium black soil. The land is harrowed and made into seedbeds. Seeds are broadcast in the beds, *wafa*. Waterings are given frequently. The crop matures within three months. Sometimes it is sown as a mixed crop with jowar and groundnut. The roots of carrot are eaten raw and boiled. The excess of it is used as fodder for cattle.

Onion.

Onion, *kanda*, is usually grown alone in medium black soils. Seedlings are raised by broadcasting the seeds in seedbeds. Sometimes one or two waterings are given to raise the seedlings. After about a month the seedlings are transplanted at a distance of 101.6 to 127 mm (four to five inches) in rows about 203.2 mm (eight inches) apart in the specially prepared beds. Among the two varieties red and white, red onions are commonly grown in the district. The crop matures within three months from transplanting. The tender leaves, *pat*, are used as vegetables. The bulbs are extensively used for preparing various dishes. The stalk, *band*, which bears flower is retained for seed. The flowers are picked after about six months and dried in the sun and preserved.

Brinjal.

Brinjal, *wangi*, is an irrigated crop and can be grown on medium brown soil. When it is grown as a rainfed crop, seedlings are raised in June and transplanted in July. After two months from the time of transplanting it begins to bear fruit which lasts for four months. As a garden crop it can be grown any time during the year by giving frequent waterings. *Krishnakathi*, and *kateri*, are the common varieties grown in the district.

Potato.

Potato, *batata*, occupied an area of 153.376 hectares (379 acres) in 1961-62. The crop is produced as a *kharif* crop in places having rainfall of 635 to 1,143 mm (25 to 45 inches). It thrives best in well drained soils having good depth. The land is brought to fine tilth by ploughing and harrowings. It is then made into ridges and furrows. Manures are applied while preparing the soil. Potato is cut into pieces each having two or three eye-buds and planted in furrows at a distance of about 228.6 mm (nine inches) and in rows about 457.2 mm (18 inches) apart. The crop matures in about 90 days. The *simla* and *numbri* varieties are generally grown in the district. The tubers are used as vegetables.

TABLE No. 28.

TALUKAWISE OUT-TURN OF PRINCIPAL CROPS IN METRIC *TONNES IN SANGLI DISTRICT, 1956-57 TO 1961-62.

Taluka	Year	Rice	Wheat	Jowar		Total	Bajri	Maize
				Rabi	Kharif			
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Miraj	1956-57 ..	244·856 (241)	1,356·360 (1,335)	204·216 (201)	24,211·280 (23,830)	24,415·496 (24,031)	1,503·680 (1,480)	164·592 (162)
	1957-58 ..	636·016 (626)	4,289·552 (4,222)	7,285·736 (7,171)	22,166·072 (21,817)	29,451·808 (28,988)	15,184·120 (14,945)	299·720 (295)
	1958-59 ..	1,114·552 (1,097)	1,279·144 (1,259)	198·120 (195)	15,365·984 (15,124)	15,564·104 (15,319)	210·312 (207)	196·098 (193)
	1959-60 ..	1,092·200 (1,075)	749·808 (738)	197·104 (194)	10,718·800 (10,550)	10,915·904 (10,744)	170·688 (168)	213·360 (210)
	1960-61 ..	342·392 (337)	2,122·424 (2,089)	4,616·736 (4,546)	24,576·024 (24,189)	29,194·760 (28,735)	6,788·912 (6,682)	237·744 (234)
	1961-62 ..	398·272 (392)	2,258·568 (2,223)	5,097·272 (5,017)	25,314·656 (24,916)	30,411·928 (29,933)	6,061·456 (5,966)	173·736 (171)
Tasgaon	1956-57 .	931·672 (917)	1,539·240 (1,515)	205·232 (202)	14,268·704 (14,044)	14,473·936 (14,246)	237·744 (234)	192·024 (189)
	1957-58 ..	260·096 (256)	1,533·144 (1,509)	123·952 (122)	23,086·568 (22,723)	23,210·520 (22,845)	1,526·032 (1,502)	165·608 (163)

* Figures in brackets show out-turn in tons.

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TABLE No. 28—*contd.*

Taluka	Year	Rice	Wheat	Jowar		Total	Bajri	Maize
				Rabi	Kharif			
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Tasgaon—*contd* ..	1958-59	294·640 (290)	1,568·704 (1,544)	163·576 (161)	23,625·048 (23,253)	23,788·624 (23,414)	1,627·632 (1,602)	163·576 (161)
	1959-60 ..	294·640 (290)	1,676·400 (1,650)	127·000 (125)	25,552·400 (25,150)	25,679·400 (25,275)	1,600·200 (1,575)	172·720 (170)
	1960-61	415·544 (409)	1,824·736 (1,796)	127·000 (125)	25,552·400 (25,150)	25,679·400 (25,275)	1,600·200 (1,575)	172·720 (170)
	1961-62 ..	422·656 (416)	2,835·656 (2,791)	116·840 (115)	23,526·496 (23,156)	23,643·336 (23,271)	878·840 (865)	173·736 (171)
Shirala ..	1956-57	7,206·488 (7,093)	373·888 (368)	671·576 (661)	2,179·320 (2,145)	2,850·896 (2,806)	3·048 (3)	454·152 (447)
	1957-58	1,335·024 (1,314)	2,301·240 (2,265)	19,001·232 (18,702)	394·208 (388)	19,395·440 (19,090)	9,293·352 (9,147)	49·784 (49)
	1958-59 ..	1,012·952 (997)	2,143·760 (2,110)	23,976·584 (23,599)	24,824·944 (24,434)	48,801·528 (48,033)	6,264·656 (6,166)	93·472 (92)
	1959-60 ..	414·528 (408)	1,174·496 (1,156)	2,486·760 (24,485)	228·600 (225)	25,105·360 (24,710)	6,123·432 (6,027)	90,424 (89)
	1960-61 ..	9,399·016 (9,251)	376·936 (371)	1,898·904 (1,869)	1,945·640 (1,915)	3,844·544 (3,784)	1·016 (1)	535·432 (527)
	1961-62 ..	9,500·616 (9,351)	532·384 (524)	883·920 (870)	1,677·416 (1,651)	2,561·336 (2,521)	1·016 (1)	389·128 (383)

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Khanapur	1956-57 ..	454·152 (447)	1,903·048 (1,878)	5,002·784 (4,924)	20,010·120 (19,695)	25,012·904 (24,619)	7,602·728 (7,483)	242·824 (239)
	1957-58 ..	7,045·960 (6,935)	337·312 (332)	688·848 (678)	2,219·960 (2,185)	2,903·808 (2,863)	5·080 (5)	408·432 (402)
	1958-59 ..	638·048 (628)	3,527·552 (3,472)	7,697·216 (7,576)	28,355·544 (27,099)	36,052·760 (35,485)	14,927·072 (14,692)	280·416 (276)
	1959-60 ..	638·048 (628)	3,906·520 (3,845)	7,983·728 (7,858)	22,998·176 (22,636)	30,781·904 (30,494)	15,398·496 (15,156)	301·752 (297)
	1960-61 ..	635·000 (625)	3,931·920 (3,870)	8,199·120 (8,070)	20,553·680 (20,230)	28,752·800 (28,300)	15,358·872 (15,117)	282·448 (278)
	1961-62 ..	681·736 (671)	3,601·720 (3,545)	6,896·608 (6,788)	20,980·400 (20,650)	27,877·008 (27,438)	12,785·344 (12,584)	25·400 (25)
Walwa	1956-57 ..	729·488 (718)	2,074·672 (2,042)	21,412·200 (210,75)	869·696 (856)	22,281·896 (21,931)	10,643·616 (10,476)	179·832 (177)
	1957-58 ..	346·456 (341)	1,966·976 (1,936)	2,877·312 (2,832)	19,205·448 (18,903)	22,082·760 (21,735)	5,313·680 (5,230)	101·600 (100)
	1958-59 ..	256·032 (252)	1,412·240 (1,390)	4,036·568 (3,973)	22,479·000 (22,125)	26,515·568 (26,098)	6,826·504 (6,719)	139·192 (137)
	1959-60 ..	415·544 (409)	2,072·640 (2,040)	6,357·112 (6,257)	23,641·304 (23,269)	29,998·416 (29,526)	7,790·688 (7,668)	92·456 (91)
	1960-61 ..	1,180·592 (1,162)	853·440 (840)	200·152 (197)	13,365·480 (13,155)	13,565·632 (13,352)	150·368 (148)	196·088 (193)
	1961-62 ..	949·960 (935)	1,503·680 (1,480)	236·728 (233)	14,526·768 (14,298)	14,763·496 (14,531)	135·128 (133)	211·328 (208)

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OUT-TURN OF CROPS.

TABLE No. 28—contd.

Taluka	Year	Rice	Wheat	Jowar		Total	Bajri	Maize
				Rabi	Kharif			
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Jath ..	1956-57	687·832 (677)	4,073·144 (4,009)	9,742·424 (9,589)	19,992·848 (19,678)	29,735·272 (29,267)	17,015·968 (16,748)	263·144 (259)
	1957-58	2,003·552 (1,972)	1,233·424 (1,214)	182·880 (180)	15,234·920 (14,995)	15,417·800 (15,175)	207·264 (204)	191·008 (188)
	1958-59	6,431·280 (6,330)	385·064 (379)	690·880 (680)	2,833·624 (2,789)	3,524·504 (3,469)	4·664 (4)	457·200 (450)
	1959-60	9,506·712 (9,357)	377·952 (372)	893·064 (879)	1,909·064 (1,879)	2,802·128 (2,758)	1·016 (1)	612·648 (603)
	1960-61	974·344 (959)	3,730·752 (3,672)	23,832·312 (23,457)	401·320 (395)	24,233·632 (23,852)	10,064·496 (9,906)	100·584 (99)
	1961-62	1,057·656 (1,041)	2,719·832 (2,677)	29,890·720 (29,420)	580·136 (571)	30,470·856 (29,991)	10,461·752 (10,297)	162·560 (160)
District Total ..	1956-57	10,254·488 (10,093)	11,325·352 (11,147)	37,838·432 (36,652)	81,531·968 (80,248)	118,770·400 (116,900)	37,006·784 (36,424)	1,496·568 (1,473)
	1957-58	11,627·104 (11,444)	11,661·648 (11,478)	30,159·960 (29,685)	82,307·176 (81,011)	112,467·136 (110,696)	31,529·528 (31,033)	1,179·576 (1,161)
	1958-59	9,747·504 (9,594)	10,316·464 (10,154)	36,762·944 (36,184)	117,484·144 (115,634)	154,247·088 (151,818)	52,334·160 (51,510)	1,329·944 (1,309)
	1959-60	12,361·672 (12,167)	9,957·816 (9,801)	40,434·768 (39,798)	84,048·344 (83,709)	17,485·840 (150,740)	31,084·520 (30,595)	1,483·360 (1,460)
	1960-61	12,946·888 (12,743)	12,840·208 (12,638)	388,876·224 (38,264)	80,394·544 (85,034)	125,270·768 (123,298)	33,963·864 (33,429)	1,525·016 (1,501)
	1961-62	13,010·896 (12,806)	13,451·840 (13,240)	43,122·088 (42,443)	86,605·782 (85,242)	129,727·960 (127,685)	30,323·536 (29,846)	1,135·888 (1,118)

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Taluka	Year	Ragi	Italian millets	Gram	Mug	Tur	Black gram	Horse gram
(1)	(2)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)
Miraj	1956-57 .	..	91.440 (90)	1,954·784 (1,924)	28·448 (28)	2,935·224 (2,889)	197·104 (194)	671·576 (661)
	1957-58 ..	929·640 (915)	..	1,395·984 (1,374)	186·944 (184)	4,876·800 (4,800)	1,649·984 (1,624)	960·120 (945)
	1958-59 .	10 160 (10)	121·920 (120)	910·336 (896)	49·784 (49)	1,404·112 (1,382)	385·064 (379)	237·744 (234)
	1959-60 ..	9 144 (9)	123·952 (122)	958·088 (943)	56·896 (56)	1,405·128 (1,383)	350·520 (345)	229·616 (226)
	1960-61 ..	..	18·288 (18)	1,233·424 (1,214)	69·088 (68)	3,004·312 (2,957)	27·432 (27)	1,109·472 (1,092)
	1961-62 ..	..	29·464 (29)	1,198·880 (1,180)	47·752 (47)	2,991·104 (2,944)	65·024 (64)	689·864 (679)
Tasgaon	1956-57 ..	2·032 (2)	152·400 (150)	1,004·824 (989)	66·040 (65)	1,568·704 (1,544)	353·568 (348)	245·872 (242)
	1957-58 ..	..	82·296 (81)	1,780·032 (1,752)	60·960 (60)	2,951·480 (2,905)	225·552 (222)	694·944 (684)

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TABLE No. 28—*contd.*

Taluka	Year	Ragi	Italian millets	Gram	Mug	Tur	Black gram	Horse gram
(1)	(2)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)
Tasgaon—*contd.* ..	1958-59 ..	.. ..	76·200 (75)	1,189·736 (1,171)	47·752 (47)	2,906·776 (2,861)	266·192 (262)	655·320 (645)
	1959-60 .	.. ..	81 280 (80)	1,779·000 (1,750)	48·768 (48)	2,910·840 (2,865)	254·000 (250)	600·400 (650)
	1960-61 ..	.. ..	81·280 (80)	1,808·480 (1,780)	50·800 (50)	2,951·480 (2,905)	264·160 (260)	660·400 (650)
	1961-62 ..	.. .	71·120 (70)	1,570·736 (1,546)	72·136 (71)	2,761·488 (2,718)	350·520 (345)	649·224 (639)
Shirala	1956-57 ..	1,007·872 (992)	233·680 (230)	261·112 (257)	1·016 (1)	161·544 (159)	187·960 (185)	80·264 (79)
	1957-58 ..	.. ..	15·240 (15)	772 160 (760)	17·272 (17)	1,051·560 (1,035)	1·016 (1)	861·568 (848)
	1958-59 ..	.. ..	13·208 (13)	381·000 (375)	38·608 (38)	933·704 (919)	2·032 (2)	675·640 (665)
	1959-60 ..	.. ..	.. ..	366·776 (361)	38·608 (38)	918·464 (904)	2·032 (2)	737·616 (726)
	1960-61 ..	956·056 (941)	199·136 (196)	142·240 (140)	1·016 (1)	125·984 (124)	118·872 (117)	47·752 (47)
	1961-62 ..	655·320 (645)	87·376 (86)	374·904 (369)	1·016 (1)	97·536 (96)	152·400 (150)	23·368 (23)

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Khanapur	1956-57 ..	.. ..	27·432 (27)	1,483·360 (1,460)	99·568 (98)	2,961·640 (2,915)	16·256 (16)	716·280 (705)
	1957-58 ..	855·472 (842)	215·392 (212)	215·392 (212)	2·032 (2)	182·880 (180)	179·832 (177)	64·008 (63)
	1958-59 ..	.. ..	530·352 (522)	1,990·344 (1,959)	266·192 (262)	3,878·072 (3,817)	1,395·984 (1,374)	1,993·392 (1,962)
	1959-60 ..	950·976 (936)	452·120 (445)	2,009·648 (1,978)	279·400 (275)	4,312·920 (4,245)	1,774·952 (1,747)	1,191.768 (1,173)
	1960-61 ..	30·480 (30)	97·536 (96)	1,249·680 (1,230)	114·808 (113)	4,815·840 (4,740)	1,122·680 (1,105)	649·224 (639)
	1961-62 ..	99·568 (98)	593·344 (584)	1,660·144 (1,634)	150·368 (148)	3 320·288 (3,268)	1,397·000 (1,375)	652·272 (642)
Walwa	1956-57 ..	.. ..	35·560 (35)	548·640 (540)	35·560 (35)	806·704 (794)	6·096 (6)	670·560 (660)
	1957-58 ..	.. ..	15·240 (15)	3,994·912 (3,932)	103·632 (102)	3,085·592 (3,037)	34·544 (34)	715·264 (704)
	1958-59 ..	.. ..	22·352 (22)	893·064 (879)	58·928 (58)	2,571·496 (2,531)	23·368 (23)	884·936 (871)
	1959-60 ..	2·032 (2)	30·480 (30)	1,303·528 (1,283)	73·152 (72)	2,932·176 (2,886)	55·880 (55)	767·080 (755)
	1960-61 ..	10·160 (10)	127·000 (125)	939·800 (925)	42·672 (42)	1,508·760 (1,485)	353·568 (348)	270·256 (266)
	1961-62 ..	66·040 (65)	103·632 (102)	779·272 (767)	33·528 (33)	1,304·544 (1 284)	313·944 (309)	233·680 (230)

TABLE No. 28—*contd.*

Taluka (1)	Year (2)	Ragi (10)	Italian millets (11)	Gram (12)	Mug (13)	Tur (14)	Black gram (15)	Horse gram (16)
Jath	1956-57 ..	..	475·488 (468)	1,330·960 (1,310)	179·832 (177)	4,696·968 (4,623)	1,719·072 (1,692)	966·216 (951)
	1957-58 ..	19·304 (19)	132·080 (130)	957·072 (942)	56·896 (56)	1,616·456 (1,591)	386·080 (380)	238·760 (235)
	1958-59 ..	1,158·240 (1,140)	243·840 (240)	314·960 (310)	1·016 (1)	147·320 (145)	206·248 (203)	67·056 (66)
	1959-60 ..	918·464 (904)	199·136 (196)	278·384 (274)	1·016 (1)	129·032 (127)	120·904 (119)	37·592 (37)
	1960-61 ..	..	17·272 (17)	299·720 (295)	59·944 (59)	1,123·696 (1,160)	3·048 (3)	896·112 (882)
	1961-62 ..	..	23·368 (23)	412·496 (406)	51·816 (51)	1,153·160 (1,135)	51·816 (51)	470·408 (463)
District Total ..	1956-57 ..	1,009·904 (994)	10,16·000 (1,000)	6,583·680 (6,480)	410·464 (404)	13,095·224 (12,889)	2,480·056 (441)	3,350·768 (3,298)
	1957-58 ..	1,804·416 (1,776)	460·248 (453)	9,115·552 (8,972)	427·736 (421)	13,764·768 (13,548)	2,477·008 (2,438)	3,534·64 (3,479)
	1958-59 ..	1,168·400 (1,150)	1,007·872 (992)	5,681·440 (5,590)	462·280 (455)	11,841·480 (11,655)	2,278·888 (243)	4,514·088 (4,443)
	1959-60 ..	1,898·904 (1,869)	886·968 (873)	6,694·424 (6,589)	497·840 (490)	12,608·560 (12,410)	2,558·288 (2,518)	3,624·072 (3,567)
	1960-61 ..	966·264 (954)	540·512 (532)	5,673·344 (5,584)	433·928 (443)	13,936·472 (13,717)	1,889·760 (1,860)	3,633·216 (3,576)
	1961-62	820·928 (808)	908·304 (894)	5,996·432 (5,902)	356·616 (351)	11,628·120 (11,445)	2,330·704 (2,294)	2,922·016 (2,876)

Taluka (1)	Year (2)	Sugarcane (17)	Potato (18)	Betelnuts (19)	Chillis (20)	Turmeric (21)
Miraj	1956-57 ..	3,122·168 (3,073)	22·352 (22)	174·752 (172)	430·784 (424)	.. ..
	1957-58 ..	2,390·648 (2,353)	449·072 (442)	397·256 (391)	978·408 (963)	.. ..
	1958-59 ..	14,989·048 (14,753)	83·312 (82)	.. ..	563·880 (555)	1,205·992 (1,187)
	1959-60 ..	7,789·144 (17,509)	77·216 (76)	.. ..	630·936 (621)	806·704 (794)
	1960-61 ..	10,418·064 (10,254)	87·376 (86)	.. ..	690·880 (680)	2,504·440 (2,465)
	1961-62 ..	12,227·560 (12,035)	160·528 (158)	.. ..	822·960 (810)	2,452·624 (2,414)
Tasgaon	1956-57 ..	13,250·672 (13,042)	98·552 (97)	192·024 (189)	192·024 (189)	.. ..
	1957-58 ..	3,979·672 (3,917)	3,·560 (35)	138·176 (136)	252·984 (249)	.. ..
	1958-59 ..	5,193·792 (5,112)	35·560 (35)	.. ..	374·904 (369)	5,371·592 (5,287)
	1959-60 ..	5,232·400 (5,150)	35·560 (35)	.. ..	381·000 (375)	5,283·200 (5,200)

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TABLE No. 28—*contd.*

Taluka (1)	Year (2)	Sugarcane (17)	Potato (18)	Betelnuts (19)	Chillis (20)	Turmeric (21)
Tasgaon—*contd.*	1960-61 ..	10,298·176 (10,136)	86·360 (85)	.. ..	539·496 (531)	4,125·976 (4,061)
	1961-62 ..	12,708·128 (12,508)	24·384 (24)	.. ..	590·296 (581)	4,612·640 (4,540)
Shirala	1956-57 ..	4,117·848 (4,053)	23·368 (23)	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..
	1957-58 ..	1,422·400 (1,400)	.. ..	1,525·016 (1,501)	2,513·584 (2,474)	.. ..
	1958-59 ..	2,315·464 (2,279)	.. ..	.. ..	248·920 (245)	654·304 (644)
	1959-60 ..	2,849·880 (2,805)	.. ..	.. ..	260·096 (256)	676·656 (666)
	1960-61 ..	8,150·352 (8,022)	4·064 (4)	.. ..	88·392 (87)	127·000 (125)
	1961-62 ..	8,570·976 (8,436)	7·112 (7)	.. ..	283·464 (279)	102·616 (101)
Khanapur	1956-57 ..	3,962·400 (3,900)	3·048 (3)	1,642·872 (1,617)	1,642·872 (1,617)	.. ..
	1957-58 ..	5,127·752 (5,047)	2·032 (2)	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..

	1958-59 ..	2,685·288 (2,643)	399·288 (393)	.. ..	4·112 (132)	2,876·296 (2,831)
	1959-60 ..	27,309·064 (26,879)	475·488 (468)	.. ..	351·536 (346)	2,788·920 (2,745)
	1960-61 ..	6,629·400 (6,525)	1,137·920 (1,120)	.. ..	889·000 (875)	2,707·640 (2,665)
	1961-62 ..	7,533·640 (7,415)	386·080 (380)	.. ..	649·224 (639)	3,053·080 (3,005)
Walwa	1956-57 ..	.. ..	2,702·560 (2,660)	.. ..	2,702·560 (2,660)	2·032 (2)
	1957-58 ..	5,065·776 (4,986)	45·720 (45)	1,471·168 (1,448)	1,590·040 (1,565)	.. ..
	1958-59 ..	6,990·080 (6,880)	33·528 (33)	.. ..	449·072 (442)	1,912·112 (1,882)
	1959-60 ..	8,319·006 (8,188)	39·624 (39)	.. ..	708·152 (697)	2,295·144 (2,259)
	1960-61 ..	25,794·208 (25,388)	76·200 (75)	.. ..	594·360 (585)	1,169·416 (1,151)
	1961-62 ..	29,219·144 (28,759)	42·672 (42)	.. ..	620·776 (611)	992·632 (977)
Jath	1956-57 ..	2,132·584 (2,099)	375·920 (370)	869·696 (856)	869·696 (856)	.. ..
	1957-58 ..	13.592·048 (13,378)	83·312 (82)	181·864 (179)	181·864 (179)	.. ..

TABLE No. 28—*contd.*

Taluka (1)	Year (2)	Sugarcane (17)	Potato (18)	Betelnuts (19)	Chillis (20)	Turmeric (21)
Jath—*contd.*	1958-59	5,408·168 (5,323)	2,469·896 (2,431)	..	85·344 (84)	157·480 (155)
	1959-60	8,063·992 (7,937)	10·160 (10)	..	99·568 (98)	143·256 (141)
	1960-61	2,268·728 (2,233)	..	..	232·664 (229)	872·744 (859)
	1961-62	3,305·048 (3,253)	168·656 (166)	..	352·552 (347)	1,267·968 (1,248)
District Total	1956-57	26,585·672 (26,167)	3,225·800 (3,175)	2,879·344 (2,834)	5,837·936 (5,746)	2·032 (2)
	1957-58	31,578·296 (31,081)	615·696 (606)	3,713·480 (3,655)	5,516·880 (5,430)	..
	1958-59	37,581·840 (36,990)	3,021·584 (2,974)	..	1,856·232 (1,827)	12,177·776 (11,986)
	1959-60	69,563·488 (68,468)	638·048 (628)	..	2,431·288 (2,393)	11,993·880 (11,805)
	1960-61	63,558·928 (62,558)	1,391·920 (1,370)	..	3,034·792 (2,987)	11,507·216 (11,326)
	1961-62	73,564·496 (72,406)	789·432 (777)	..	3,319·272 (3,267)	12,481·560 (12,285)

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

OUT-TURN OF CROPS.

Taluka (1)	Year (2)	Cotton (22)	Sann-Hemp (23)	Groundnut (24)	Sesamum (25)	Tobacco (26)	Cardamom (27)
Miraj	1956-57 ..	19,451·320 (19,145)	.. ..	3·048 (3)	514·096 (506)	.. ..	256·032 (252)
	1957-58 ..	12,999·720 (12,795)	3·048 (3)	.. ..	97·536 (96)	.. ..	581·152 (572)
	1958-59 ..	256·032 (252)	78·232 (77)	13,832·840 (13,615)	1,016 (1)	1,335·024 (1,314)	.. ..
	1959-60 ..	108·712 (107)	68·072 (67)	9,075·928 (8,933)	4·064 (4)	1,549·460 (1,525)	.. ..
	1960-61 ..	134·112 (132)	9·144 (9)	24,667·464 (24,279)	4·064 (4)	2,579·624 (2,539)	.. ..
	1961-62 ..	592·328 (583)	.. ..	24,798·528 (24,408)	3·048 (3)	2,514·600 (2,475)	.. ..
Tasgaon	1956-57 ..	13,775·944 (13,559)	1·016 (1)	.. ..	2,080·768 (2,048)	.. ..	.. ..
	1957-58 ..	20,548·600 (20,225)	1·016 (1)	4·064 (4)	538·480 (530)	.. ..	114·808 (113)
	1958-59 ..	224·536 (221)	10·160 (10)	12,428·728 (12,233)	4·064 (4)	495·808 (488)	.. ..
	1959-60 ..	215·392 (212)	8·128 (8)	12,446·000 (12,250)	.. ..	558·800 (550)	.. ..

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Agriculture and Irrigation.

OUT-TURN OF CROPS.

TABLE No. 28—*contd.*

Taluka (1)	Year (2)	Cotton (22)	Sann-Hemp (23)	Groundnut (24)	Sesamum (25)	Tobacco (26)	Cardamom (27)
Tasgaon—*contd.* ..	1960-61 ..	14·224 (14)	8·128 (8)	25,019·000 (24,625)	.. ..	609·600 (600)	.. ..
	1961-62 ..	124·968 (123)	6·096 (6)	21,664·168 (21,323)	.. ..	861·568 (848)	.. ..
Shirala	1956-57 ..	4,040·632 (3,977)	.. ..	.. ..	47·752 (47)	.. ..	.. ..
	1957-58 ..	9,289·288 (9,143)	.. ..	3·048 (3)	5·080 (5)	.. ..	988·568 (973)
	1958-59 ..	1,106·424 (1,089)	.. ..	7,196·328 (7,083)	552·704 (544)	3,456·432 (3,402)	.. ..
	1959-60 ..	2,550·160 (2,510)	.. ..	7,196·328 (7,083)	552·704 (544)	6·096 (6)	.. ..
	1960-61 ..	.. ..	5·080 (5)	3,697·224 (3.639)	.. ..	29·464 (29)	.. ..
	1961-62 ..	.. ..	2·032 (2)	3,777·488 (3,718)	.. ..	28·448 (28)	.. ..
Khanapur	1956-57 ..	21,294·344 (20,959)	2·032 (2)	5·080 (5)	3,740·912 (3,682)	.. ..	.. ..
	1957-58 ..	4,031·488 (3,968)	.. ..	.. ..	29·464 (29)	.. ..	.. ..

	1958-59 ..	478·536 (471)	..	13,665·200 (13,450)	3·048 (3)	55·880 (55)	.. ..
	1959-60 ..	646·176 (636)	.. ..	13,761·720 (13,545)	3·048 (3)	90·424 (89)	.. ..
	1960-61 ..	38·608 (38)	.. ..	9,663·176 (5,911)	.. ..	36·576 (36)	.. ..
	1961-62 ..	1,907·032 (1,877)	.. ..	11,354·816 (11,176)	5·080 (5)	7·056 (66)	.. ..
Walwa	1956-57 ..	8,758·936 (8,621)	311·912 (307)	30·480 (30)	14·224 (14)	.. ..	.. ..
	1957-58 ..	8,831·072 (8,692)	1·016 (1)	9·144 (9)	3,438·144 (3,384)	.. ..	118·872 (117)
	1958-59 ..	748·792 (737)	7·112 (7)	22,414·992 (22,062)	4·064 (4)	6·096 (6)	.. ..
	1959-60 ..	2,442·464 (2,404)	12·192 (12)	27,069·272 (26,642)	6·096 (6)	.. ..	.. ..
	1960-61 ..	16·256 (16)	76·200 (75)	13,257·784 (13,049)	5·080 (5)	1,950·720 (1,920)	.. ..
	1961-62 ..	88·392 (87)	98·552 (97)	13,712·952 (13,497)	5·080 (5)	1,427·480 (1,405)	.. ..
Jath	1956-57 ..	122,665·744 (120,734)	1·016 (1)	1·016 (1)	79·248 (78)	.. ..	.. ..
	1957-58 ..	13,400·024 (13,189)	.. ..	.. ..	1,315·720 (1,295)	.. ..	.. ..
	1958-59 ..	.. ..	4·064 (4)	3,866·896 (3,806)	.. ..	25·400 (25)	.. ..

TABLE No. 28—*contd.*

Taluka (1)	Year (2)	Cotton (22)	Sann-Hemp (23)	Groundnut (24)	Sesamum (25)	Tobacco (26)	Cardamom (27)
Jath—*contd.*	1959-60 ..	..	6·096 (6)	3,921·760 (3,860)	..	31·496 (31)	..
	1960-61 ..	659 384 (649)	..	14,272·768 (14,048)	510·032 (502)	8·128 (8)	..
	1961-62 ..	3,596·640 (3,540)	5·080 (5)	12,618·720 (12,420)	495·808 (488)	9·144 (9)	..
District Total ..	1956-57 ..	189·986·920 (186,995)	315·976 (311)	39·624 (39)	6,477·000 (6,375)	..	256·032 (252)
	1957-58 ..	69,100·192 (168,012)	5·080 (5)	16·256 (16)	5,424·424 (5,339)	..	1,803·400 (1,775)
	1958-59 ..	2,814·320 (2,770)	99·568 (98)	73,404·984 (72,249)	564·896 (556)	5,374·640 (5,290)	..
	1959-60 ..	5,962·904 (5,869)	94·488 (93)	73,470·008 (72,313)	565·912 (557)	2,236·216 (2,201)	..
	1960-61 ..	862·584 (849)	98·552 (97)	90,577·416 (89,151)	519·176 (511)	5,214·112 (5,132)	..
	1961-62 ..	6,309·360 (6,210)	111·760 (110)	87,926·672 (86,542)	509·016 (501)	4,909·312 (4,832)	..

LIVE-STOCK.

Cattle still retains its importance in the agrarian economy of the district. The agricultural operations like ploughing, harrowing, sowing, transporting of agricultural produce, etc., are carried out with the help of bullocks. Cows and she-buffaloes are reared for purposes of breeding and milk production. The district is very famous for its indigenous breed of cattle known as *khilar*. The cattle markets which are held at the time of the annual fair of Shri Siddheshwar at Kharsundi, Kargani and Jath are famous for the *khilar* breed. The cattle breed in the district, however, lacks in milking quality. Attempts are being made at governmental level to improve the quality of live-stock in the district under various schemes. The working of the schemes and the position of the live-stock is described in the following pages.

Animal Husbandry.

The veterinary aid aims at the treatment of ailing animals and control of epizootic and parasitic diseases as well as various other problems pertaining to animal health. It also includes the programme of cattle development such as castration and general propaganda about breeding, feeding and management of animals. In all there are ten veterinary dispensaries and twenty-four veterinary aid centres. In addition to these five veterinary aid centres are proposed to be started in the district.

In addition to these efforts to enrich the live-stock of the district, Government has started one *Khilar* Cattle Breeding Farm and one Key Village Centre at Jath. It has also started an Intensive Cattle Development Scheme under Crash Programme. Under this scheme cows, bulls and he-buffaloes are located in the milk collecting areas of Walwa, Tasgaon and Miraj talukas. Almost every village from these talukas is covered under this scheme.

The pure breeding of cattle is encouraged through pure breed bulls and cows supplied to cultivators, by up-grading the local non-descript cattle by supplying superior type of pure breed bulls and through artificial insemination. Details of the other schemes for the all-round development of cattle such as silo-pits, fodder development and *goshala* development falling under the programme are as under.

Supplementary Cattle Breeding Scheme.

The scheme is sanctioned for a group of five adjoining villages. Under this scheme five pure breed bulls and fifty cows are located in the area. The cultivator is given a subsidy of Rs. 350 per bull and Rs. 200 per cow for purchase and Rs. 30 per month for maintenance. The activities undertaken for cattle improvement include castration of scrub bulls, registration of pure breed stock, recording yield of milk, etc. The pure breed progeny is earmarked for further distribution. The cattle shows and rallies are also organised with a view to encouraging

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LIVE-STOCK.

Supplementary Cattle Breeding Scheme.

breeding of superior type of cattle by way of holding health competitions and awarding prizes to the best animals in the show. There are nine supplementary cattle breeding centres at the following places (1) Nimani (Tasgaon taluka), (2) Vita, (3) Kadegaon, (4) Atpadi, (5) Khanapur, (6) Chinchani, (7) Hatnur, (8) Alsund and (9) Savalaj.

District Premium Bull Scheme

The object of the scheme is to encourage the people to improve their cattle by taking the services of the premium bulls. The breeding bulls are supplied to the cultivators under the following schemes. Under half cost scheme a farmer is supplied a breeding bull and subsidised maximum Rs. 500 or half of the actual cost of the bull, whichever is less. No maintenance charges are paid. The farmer has to maintain the bull in good breeding condition for a period of three years. It is to be utilised by the villagers to improve their cattle. Under the district premium bull maintenance scheme, the farmer has to purchase the breeding bull at his own cost with the approval of the Department of Animal Husbandry. A maintenance charge of Rs. 30 per month is paid for a period of three years from the date of purchase or from the date of maintaining the bull. It is to be utilised by the villagers to improve their cattle. The present strength of such bulls in the district is 63 bulls on maintenance charges scheme and 46 bulls on half cost scheme.

Under the scheme for premium bull centre two premium bulls at full Government cost are kept at Bilashi. Their use is given free to improve the cattle breed in rural areas. One stockman and one attendant are employed to look after the bulls.

Artificial Insemination Centre.

There are at present four artificial insemination sub-centes at Miraj, Tasgaon, Vita and Sangli. The total number of artificial inseminations at each centre up to 31st March 1963 is given below:—

	Cows	Buffaloes
Miraj	85	59
Tasgaon ..	124	201
Vita	750	180
Sangli	..	..

Construction of Silo-pits.

The object of the scheme is to preserve the surplus fodder grown in succulent state without loss to its nutritious value for using it during summer season when there is scarcity of green fodder. A subsidy of Rs. 400 is given to the cultivator to construct silo-pit and to fill it regularly. At present there are ten silo-pits at the following places:—

(1) Kharatwadi.
(2) Takari.
(3) Gudhe.
(4) Kotwade.
(5) Tadsar.
(6) Kadegaon.
(7) Bhilavadi.
(8) Mahisal.
(9) Khanapur.
(10) Jakhapur.

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation. LIVE-STOCK. Scheme for Development of Goshalas and Panjarpols.

The scheme, sponsored by the All India Gosamvardhan Federation, aims to mobilise the resources of the institutions and convert them into potential cattle breeding centres. The only *goshala* i.e. Shri Panjarpol Sanstha, Sangli, in the district is subsidised under the scheme. A subsidy of Rs. 2,000 was sanctioned for the year 1962-63. Prior to this a token grant of Rs. 100 per annum was given.

Sheep Development.

The scheme aims to improve the local breed of sheep as well as the quality and quantity of wool by supplying pure-bred rams to the shepherds. Under this scheme two sheep and wool extension centres have been started since 1960 at Zare and Jath and improved rams are being supplied to the shepherds from villages coming under these centres. Loans to 50 shepherds, at the rate of Rs. 100 per shepherd, were granted during the year 1963-64 to purchase improved varieties of sheep.

In order to give incentive to shepherds, the Zilla Parishad, Sangli has started a scheme of supplying pure-bred rams, under half cost subsidy. During the last two years 60 rams have been supplied under the scheme. The Government under Crash Programme have, sanctioned eight supplementary sheep breeding centres in the sheep breeding areas of the district. Under this scheme 10 ewes and one ram are supplied free of cost to cultivators. During the years 1964-65 and 1965-66, 500 sheep were supplied to cultivators.

Live-stock Products.

TABLE No. 29.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE PRICES OF LIVE-STOCK PRODUCTS IN SANGLI DISTRICT, 1963-64.

Live-stock Products (1)	Kavthe-Mahankal (2)	Sangli (3)	District average (4)	Remarks (5)
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
Meat (goat)..	2·75	3·00	3·00	Per kg
Liver (goat)	2·00	1·25	1·62	Per piece.
Brain (goat)	..	0·75	0·75	Per piece.
Hoofs (goat, sheep)	..	0·45	0·45	Per pair.
Bone	..	0·50	0·50	Per kg
Offals	..	1·50	1·50	Per kg
Wool	3·75	3·00	3·37	Per kg

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Live-stock Products.

TABLE No. 29—*contd.*

Live-stock Products (1)	Kavthe-Mahankal (2)	Sangli (3)	District average (4)	Remarks (5)
Dung cakes..	..	..	1·50	Per 100.
Milk	0·60	0·85	0·72	Per litre.
Lassi	..	..	1·50	Do.
Ghee	6·00	7·00	6·50	Per kg
Butter	4·50	5·50	5·00	Do.
Khawa	..	3·50	3·50	Per kg
Hides	..	4·00	4·00	Per piece.
Goat skins	5·00	5·00	5·00	Per piece.
Sheep skins	8·00	..	8·00	Per kg.
Do.	1·00	..	1·00	Per piece.
Hen eggs	1·75	2·00	1·87	Per dozen.
Duck eggs	..	3·00	3·00	Per dozen.

Live-stock Prices.

TABLE No. 30.

THE PRICES OF LIVE-STOCK PREVAILING IN SANGLI DISTRICT, 1963-64.

Live-stock (1)	Kavthe-Mahankal (2)	Sangli (3)	District average (4)	Remarks (5)
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
Bull	500·00	450·00	475·00	
Cow (milch)	200·00	250·00	225·00	
Cow (dry)	100·00	90·00	95·00	
Buffalo (milch)	375·00	425·00	400·00	
Buffalo (dry)	75·00	100·00	87 00	
Baffalo (male)	100·00	75·00	87 00	
Sheep	45·00	55·00	50·00	
Goat	75·00	85·00	80·00	
Fowl	5·50	6·50	6·00	
Chicken	2·00	2 25	2·12	
Duck	6·00	6·50	5·75	

TABLE No. 31

STATEMENT SHOWING THE PROMINENT WEEKLY OR PERIODICAL CATTLE MARKETS IN SANGLI DISTRICT

Place (1)	Taluka (2)	Bazar day (3)	Remarks (4)
Jath ..	Jath ..	Tuesday, Thursday.	..
Kavthe Mahankal.	Miraj ..	Tuesday ..	..
Islampur ..	Walwa ..	Sunday ..	..
Sangli ..	Miraj ..	Saturday	..
Dhalgaon ..	Miraj ..	Sunday ..	Sheep market.
Palus ..	Tasgaon ..	Tuesday ..	Cattle market, now merged in agricultural production market committee, Tasgaon.
Vita ..	Khanapur ..	Monday ..	..
Mangle ..	Shirala ..	Wednesday	..

TABLE No. 32.

TALUKA-WISE DISTRIBUTION OF LIVE-STOCK IN SANGLI DISTRICT, 1961.

Species of animals (1)	Jath (2)	Khanapur (3)	Miraj (4)	Shirala (5)	Tasgaon (6)	Walwa (7)	District total (8)
Cattle : Males over 3 years—							
(1) Breeding bulls	69	63	28	7	59	2	228
(2) Working bullocks	25,899	38,381	31,379	10,963	28,240	22,356	152,218
(3) Others	287	256	197	95	107	310	1,252
Total	26,255	38,700	31,604	11,065	28,406	22,668	153,698
Cattle: Females over 3 years—							
(1) In milk	10,741	7,868	9,109	3,696	5,758	4,571	41,741
(2) Dry	10,951	11,606	6,552	5,848	4,792	4,206	43,955
(3) Not Calved	3,732	4,800	11,304	1,637	1,735	1,531	24,739
(4) Others	355	19	182	32	20	66	674
Total	25,779	24,293	27,147	11,213	12,305	10,374	111,111
Cattle: Young stock below 3 years	16,777	14,179	15,102	7,726	9,989	7,858	71,431
Total cattle	68,811	77,172	73,853	30,004	45,500	40,900	3,36,240
Buffaloes : Males over 4 years—							
(1) Breeding	25	33	44	..	32	36	170
(2) Working	581	1,179	1,024	4,292	1,253	3,922	12,251
(3) Others	11	262	39	52	34	80	478
Total	617	1,474	1,107	4,344	1,319	4,038	12,899

Buffaloes : Females over 3 years—							
(1) In milk ..	3,601	8,005	16,705	4,758	12,287	12,217	57,573
(2) Dry ..	1,553	6,122	5,098	3,502	4,301	4,418	24,994
(3) Not calved ..	983	2,426	7,476	1,317	2,150	2,615	16,967
(4) Others ..	206	227	172	38	58	1,164	1,865
Total ..	6,343	16,780	29,451	9,615	18,796	20,414	101,399
Buffaloes: Young stock below 3 years ..	5,116	11,776	18,183	6,011	15,399	13,922	70,298
Total Buffloes ..	12,076	29,921	48,741	19,970	35,514	38,374	184,596
Sheep up to a1 year ..	13,266	13,969	4,367	792	2,933	9,149	45,476
Sheep over 1 year—							
(1) Males ..	4,515	5,704	1,747	618	1,508	1,663	15,755
(2) Females ..	49,791	62,718	25,554	2,311	11,855	14,494	166,723
Total ..	54,306	68,422	27,301	2,929	13,363	16,157	182,478
Total sheep ..	67,572	82,391	31,668	3,721	17,296	25,306	227,954
Goats up to 1 year ..	10,422	12,788	9,624	3,211	9,312	8,717	54,074
Goats over 1 year—							
(1) Males ..	2,942	2,949	2,730	633	2,284	2,145	13,258
(2) Females ..	22,664	29,601	24,764	6,384	17,880	18,276	119,569
Total ..	25,605	32,095	27,949	7,047	20,164	20,422	132,827
Total goats ..	36,208	44,889	37,115	10,258	29,476	29,138	186,901
Total horses and ponies ..	382	168	317	102	281	459	1,709
Total mules ..	..	..	33	..	..	20	53
Total donkeys ..	241	363	281	233	132	107	1,357

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TABLE No. 32—*contd.*

Species of animals (1)	Jath (2)	Khanapur (3)	Miraj (4)	Shirala (5)	Tasgaon (6)	Walwa (7)	District total (8)
Total camels	..	8	2	..	..	..	10
Total pigs	288	454	6,160	215	254	1,195	8,566
Total livestock	18,539,893	235,360	198,173	64,503	128,453	135,499	947,386
Poultry fowls—							
(1) Hens	53,081	74,359	57,549	29,863	50,437	58,391	323,680
(2) Cocks	11,322	12,640	9,758	4,274	7,090	6,827	51,911
(3) Chickens	21,569	16,317	34,014	12,307	11,595	24,174	119,976
Total	85,972	103,316	101,321	46,444	69,122	89,392	495,567
Poultry ducks	64	186	577	138	39	188	1,192
Poultry : Other poultry	359	6	863	..	2	3	1,233

Poultry Development.

Poultry keeping, particularly in the rural areas well connected with markets, provides a source of subsidiary income to cultivators and agricultural labourers. The poultry schemes propagated by the extension officers for Animal Husbandry, stockmen and the *gramsevaks* are now well received by the people. Courses of short duration of about a week or so are organised to impart training in poultry-keeping. A provision is also made in the budgets of the Panchayat Samiti and of the Animal Husbandry department to give financial assistance in the form of loans and subsidies to the needy persons for the purchase of eggs, improved cocks, breeding equipment and for the improvement of poultry houses. So far loans to twenty persons amounting to Rs. 750 each have been sanctioned from the departmental funds to start private poultry farms. Besides, subsidy is also given to the deserving poultry breeders. Generally the loans are sanctioned to those who have completed three months course in poultry-keeping.

The Poultry Breeding Centre of Zilla Parishad, Sangli, with a capital outlay of Rs. 63,630 functions at Bhilawadi.

A scheme estimated to cost of Rs. 49,000 to establish a poultry demonstration centre at Jath is under way.

The scheme for collection and marketing of eggs sanctioned by the Government has started functioning in the district with two sub-centres at Vita and Dhalgaon from February 1963. The eggs collected from the village poultry breeders on cash payment are despatched to Bombay *via* Poona.

The Government has sanctioned one scheme according to which a person having 50 birds can get Rs. 1,000 as loan and Rs. 250 as subsidy, while one who is having 100 birds can get Rs. 5,000 as loan. Under this scheme till now Rs. 1,75,000 have been disbursed as loans to 115 persons.

The construction work of District Poultry Breeding Centre at Miraj is nearly completed and the actual working of the centre will start soon.

The intensive poultry breeding block is started in the pilot integrated area development scheme at Tasgaon. The working of the same has already been started. The Zilla Parishad, Sangli, has supplied nearly 10,000 chicks under half cost scheme through its own funds.

Dairy Development.

Milk production and cattle rearing are subsidiary occupations of the agriculturists of the district. Surplus milk and milk products are sent to Poona and Bombay. About 15 maunds of cream, 140 maunds of butter and ghee and 16 maunds of *khawa* are exported daily. As per 1961 cattle census the district had 101,399 buffaloes and 111,111 cows. *Pandharpuri* and *deshi* buffaloes are the most common breeds in this tract. Cow breeds are *krishna* valley and *khilar*.

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Dairy Development.

A survey of the district was conducted in 1957 by the then Dairy Development section of the Agriculture department. According to that survey, the krishna valley area, along the banks of the river Krishna comprising Sangli and Kolhapur districts, was the proper place where milch cattle could very well be nursed, and milk and milk-products could profitably be sold provided the whole area was brought under the fold of dairy co-operative societies and milk federation linked with marketing facilities. The survey revealed the existence of many private dairies run in the towns like Miraj and Bhilwadi for exporting milk and milk-products. The survey also pointed out that had a Milk project been established at Miraj, it would have been possible to collect about 2,000 maunds of milk daily and a large quantity of it could have been sent to Poona from Miraj after meeting the local demand and from Poona the milk after being pasteurised could further be transported to Bombay. It was, therefore, decided by the Dairy Development department to implement the Miraj Milk Scheme in two stages, *viz.*

(1) to launch a pilot scheme to handle 100 maunds of milk and,

(2) to take up the main scheme after the required buildings were constructed and well equipped with all the necessary scientific apparatus.

Accordingly, the Krishna Valley Milk Project, phase I, was started on 25th March 1961. The scheme handles 4,500 litres (120 maunds) of milk per day. The collection of milk is done by the Dairy Co-operative societies.

IRRIGATION.

Agricultural activities in the district are still dependent on the vagaries of monsoons. The rainfall which is not evenly distributed over the district determines the pattern of crops taken, efficacy of agricultural operations and such other related activities. Irrigation thus occupies an important place in agricultural activities. Irrigation facilities of permanent nature are necessary to reach any measure of stability in the agricultural production.

The main sources of water-supply in the district are wells, *bandharas*, canals and tanks. Lift irrigation from rivers and wells through the installation of electric pumping sets and oil engines[1] has also benefited agriculture in the district. Most of the villages have either electric pumping sets or oil-engines. Though agriculture is dependent on the monsoon, human efforts have contributed no less in stepping up the agricultural production. Fields are irrigated at frequent intervals. The interval depends upon the season, the type of soil and requirements of crops and varies from eight to fifteen days.

[1] Talukawise distribution of oil-engines in Sangli district in 1961-62—Tasgaon 723, Khanapur 227, Walwa 521, Shirala 205, Miraj 677 and Jath 153.

TABLE No. 33.

SOURCES OF WATER-SUPPLY (TALUKA-WISE) IN SANGLI DISTRICT, 1961-62.

Particulars	Tasgaon	Khanapur	Walwa	Shirala	Miraj	Jath
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Canals—						
Numbers	123	310	79	3	8	9
Mileage	19	166½	41	2	22	1
Wells used for irrigation only—						
Masonry	2,640	140	1,002	673	2,405	202
Non-masonry ..	3,360	8,957	6,198	4,988	1,655	1,131
Wells used for domestic purposes only.	560	335	490	110	680	149
Wells not in use ..	1,403	690	408	100	730	223

Bandhara at Vajrachounde.

The *bandhara* across Agrani river, about a mile up-stream at Vajrachounde village, is 8.047 km (five miles) to the north-west of village Shirdhon on Miraj-Pandharpur road at mile No. 60/5. It was started in 1952-53 as a scarcity work, and was completed in the year 1954-55. It is a masonry *bandhara* with a canal length of 12.875 km (8 miles). The *bandhara* has given much relief to the famine stricken area of this tract.

Irrigation Tank at Retharc.

The irrigation tank at Retharc at mile No. 5 of Peth-Shirala road was started on 2nd October 1958 and was completed in 1961-62. It is an earthen dam 243.840 m (800′) long, 2.438 m (8′) wide at the top and has 457.2 mm (18″) H.P. outlet to serve about 161.874 hectares (400 acres) with 4.20 cusecs discharge at head. The canal is 2,682.240 m (8,800′) in length and has 5 outlets to serve the area.

Irrigation Tank at Kuchi.

The Kuchi tank at mile No. 55/6 on Miraj-Pandharpur road is about one mile to the north of the village Kuchi. The work was started in the year 1818 as a scarcity work of the Ex-Sangli State but the same remained incomplete. It was again taken up in 1958. It is an earthen dam 551.688 m (1,810′) in length. The canal length is 3.219 km (2 miles) with two distributaries and outlets. The work was completed in the year 1961-62.

Bandhara at Balavadi.

The *bandhara* across Yerala river near Balavadi village on Vita-Kirloskarwadi road, about 16.093 km. (ten miles) away from Vita is under construction. It is a masonry work. When complete the length of the main canal will be 32.187 km (20 miles) and will have 15 distributaries.

CHAPTER 4. — Agriculture and Irrigation. IRRIGATION. Atpadi Tank.

The tank is across Dhabhai Nalla near Atpadi village on Vita-Pandharpur road, about 61.155 km (38 miles) from Vita. This is an earthen dam. The length of its canal is 7.242 km ($4\frac{1}{2}$ miles) while that of distributaries is 14.484 km (9 miles).

The other details of the above-described works are given in the following statement—

TABLE No. 34

STATEMENT OF MAJOR AND MINOR GOVERNMENT IRRIGATION WORKS IN SANGLI DISTRICT.

Name of the work (1)	Taluka served (2)	Cost of construction and year of completion (3)	Area commanded (in hectares)* (4)	Area irrigated (in hectares)* (5)	Water rates charged (6)	Crops irrigated (7)
Bandhara at Vajrachounde	Miraj	Rs. 7,01,699 completed in the year 1955.	1,821·087 (4,500)	182·109 (450) (average)	Rs. 61 per acre for *Kharif* and Rs. 9 per acre for *rabi*.	Jowar, groundnuts, chilli.
Irrigation tank at Rethare..	Walwa	Rs. 2,32,366 completed in the year 1961-62.	182·109 (450)	60·703 (150) (average).	Do. ..	Jowar, rice, wheat, chilli.
Irrigation tank at Kuchi ..	Miraj	Rs. 4,44,000	433·014 (1,070) (average)	347·220 (858) (average)	Do. ..	Jowar, wheat, chilli.
Bandhara at Balavadi ..	Khanapur ..	Rs. 19,37,000 (estimated cost)	3,541·002 (8,750)	..	Work under progress.	
Atpadi tank	Khanapur ..	Rs. 15,96,000	2,266·241 (5,600)	..	Work under progress.	

* Figures in brackets show area in acres.

Projects irrigating less than 250 acres have been transferred to the Zilla Parishad. Details of such works are given in the following table:—

TABLE No. 35.

DETAILS OF SMALL BANDHARAS IN SANGLI DISTRICT.

Location of the w rk	No. of ban-dharas	Taluka served	Date of completion	Area commanded in hectares *	Area irrigated in hectares *	Description of each bandhara	Water rate charged	Crops irrigated
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
The bandharas are located in the areas of the below mentioned villages :—								
(1) (1) Balgavade, (2) Limb, (3) Ped, (4) Negaon Kavathe, (5) Chinchani, (6) Pundi, (7) Kundal, (8) Visapur, (9) Manjarde, (10) Savlaj, (11) Padali, (12) Waiphale, (13) Bas-tavade, (14) Morale Ped, (15) Palus, (16) Andhali, (17) Chinchani.	32	Tasgaon	Works have been completed during the period from 1951 to 1962.	908·925 (2,246)	837·700 (2,070)	All works are small pick-up weirs to divert the nalla flow into the canal, constructed in stone masonry.	No water charges levied.	Jowar, groundnut and vegetables.
(2) (1) Bhikavadi, (2) Shalgaon, (3) Alsund, (4) Mangrul, (5) Dhavaleshwar, (6) Gardi, (7) Vita, (8) Karanje, (9) Lengare, (10)	45	Khanapur	Do. ..	(3,408)	(2,436)	Do. ..	Do. ..	Jowar, ground-nut, bajari and vegetables.

Wangi, (11) Mohi, (12) Khanapur, (13) Wasumbe, (14) Chinchani Wangi, (15) Sonkire, (16) Wadgaon, (17) Tadasar, (18) Kadegaon, (19) Kotavade, (20) Nerli, (21) Valuj, (22) Asad, (23) Upale Mayani, (24) Yede, (25) Hingangaon, (26) Salsinge, (27) Kadepur, (28) Bhendavade, (29) Banbavade.								
(3) (1) Miraj, (2) Malgaon, (3) Gundewadi, (4) Alkud.	4	Miraj ..	Do. ..	267·093 (660)	2·023 (5)	Do. ..	Do. ..	Jowar, groundnut and vegetables.
(4) (1) Sordi, (2) Pandarzari, (3) Sank.	3	Jath ..	Do. ..	207·604 (513)	143·663 (355)	Do. ..	Do. ..	Jowar-rabi, bajari, groundnut, vegetables.
(5) (1) Peth, (2) Yellur, (3) Itakare.	3	Walwa ..	Do. ..	111·693 (276)	26·304 (65)	Do. ..	Do. ..	Jowar, groundnut, vegetables.

* Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

IRRIGATION.

Co-operative Lift Irrigation Scheme.

Irrigation is of vital importance to agricultural production. It serves as a break against the vagaries of nature by making good the deficiencies due to scanty and irregular rainfall. The sources of irrigation in the district are rivers, wells, tanks etc. Water is lifted from river, wells, tanks etc. and used for irrigation purpose. Formerly water was lifted by leather *mots* or iron *mots*. This system is still prevalent in some parts of the district where it is not possible to install electric pumping sets and where the agricIturists cannot afford to purchase oil-engines. The co-operative lift irrigation societies, therefore, have been formed as an alternative to provide irrigation facilities. These societies enable the farmer members to pool their resources for the purchase of lift irrigation machinery to lift the water from rivers and wells in places where in normal course it cannot be led to the fields by *pat* or canals. This helps to bring larger area under irrigation, reduce the cost of irrigation per acre, raise more than one crop a year and to make farming more profitable.

The river Krishna, which flows through three talukas of the district, provides the best source for lift irrigation. Lands on both the banks of the river are irrigated under the lift irrigation schemes. At present the total number of such schemes and societies in the district is 16 of which 10 are lift irrigation societies and 6 are lift irrigation schemes. As per the Government policy, the co-operative sugar factories are encouraged to sponsor co-operative lift irrigation scheme in their areas. In pursuance of this policy the Shetkari Sahakari Sakhar Karkhana Ltd., Sangli. has proposed to undertake 24 lift irrigation schemes commanding an area of 3,025.028 hectares (7,475 acres). The preliminary investigation of the schemes is in progress.

The following table gives the working of the lift irrigation schemes during the three years from 1960-61 to 1962-63.

TABLE No. 36

STATEMENT OF LIFT IRRIGATION SCHEMES IN SANGLI DISTRICT

Particulars (1)	1960-61 (2)	1961-62 (3)	1962-63 (4)
Number of schemes	16	16	16
Number of members	1,207	1,239	1,279
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Share capital	2,57,360	3,27,085	3,77,936
Government loan disbursed	5,62,297	7,36,108	7,56,301
Government subsidy disbursed	3,85,189	3,97,419	3,99,657
Reserve and other funds	66,680	94,422	1,17,141
Working capital	1,59,959	17,39,879	18,09,574
	Hectares*	Hectares*	Hactares*
Irrigable area	1,774·548 (4,385)	1,774·548 (4,385)	1,774·548 (4,385)
Area irrigated	369·074 (912)	509·499 (1,259)	554·824 (1,371)
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Capital investment	10,70,089	12,79,720	13,63,070

*Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

Ankali Co-operative Lift Irrigation Scheme.

The Ankali co-operative lift irrigation society Ltd., Ankali, is at the village Ankali, (4 miles) from Sangli town on Sangli-Kolhapur road. The scheme is located on the left bank of Krishna river. It was organised with a view to increasing agricultural production under the "Grow More Food Campaign" and was registered on 28th February 1950. The society started the construction of the scheme from 1951 and completed it in 1952. The society is self supported and has not taken any loans. It received a subsidy of Rs. 16,520 from the State Government. The society has laid down a total length of 2,011.680 m (6,600 feet) of cement pipe lines costing Rs. 19,310 to avoid percolation of water. Of the total area under its command *viz*. 50.586 hectares (125 acres), the society has brought 48.967 hectares (121 acres) under irrigation. The following statement shows the progress of the society in 1962-63.

Particulars.	Achievement.
No. of members	51
Area under command	50·586 Hectares (125 acres)
Area brought under irrigation ..	48·967 Hectares (121 acres)
Share capital	Rs. 26,200
Reserve and other fund	Rs. 35,909
Government subsidy	Rs. 16,520
Working capital	Rs. 83,636
Total estimated cost of the scheme	Rs. 39,820
Water rates..	Rs. 12 per watering per acre for all crops.

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TABLE No. 37.

TALUKA-WISE NET AREA IRRIGATED BY DIFFERENT SOURCES IN SANGLI DISTRICT, 1961-62.

Taluka	Net area irrigated by[1]						Percentage of net area irrigated to net area sown	Area irrigated more than once (in hectares)*	Total gross area of crops irrigated (in hectares)*	Percentage of total gross irrigated area to total area sown
	Canals		Tanks	Wells	Other Sources	Total				
	Govt	Private								
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
Tasgaon	3	120	..	6,000	..	6,123	7	747·860 (1,848)	7,583·815 (18,740)	7
Khanapur	3	307	..	9,097	..	9,407	6	2,129·862 (5,263)	14,341·667 (35,439)	6
Walwa	1	78	..	7,200	2,112	9,391	7	1,288·520 (3,184)	10,769·908 (26,613)	8
Shirala..	..	3	..	5,661	..	5,664	8	2,681·854 (6,627)	13,783·200 (34,059)	10
Miraj	1	7	..	4,060	..	4,068	10	505·453 (1,249)	7,067·031 (17,463)	11
Jath	..	9	..	1,333	2,942	4,284	5	126·262 (312)	2,192·589 (5,418)	5

[1] Area in acres.

*Figures in brackets show area in acres.

TABLE No. 38.

AREA OF FOOD CROPS AND NON-FOOD CROPS, IRRIGATED (TALUKA-WISE) IN SANGLI DISTRICT, 1961-62.

(Area in hectares)*

Taluka	Food Crops								
	Rice	Wheat	Jowar	Bajri	Barley	Maize	Italian millets	Gram	Sugarcane
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Tasgaon	365·431 (903)	989·862 (2,446)	1,117·338 (2,761)	30·756 (76)	..	38·445 (95)	153·376 (379)	248·072 (613)	1,944·921 (4,806)
Khanapur	340·341 (841)	2,140·789 (5,290)	3,860·704 (9,540)	776·188 (1,918)	0·405 (1)	328·200 (811)	216·507 (535)	1,089·415 (2,692)	960·320 (2,373)
Walwa	305·942 (756)	1,602·152 (3,959)	2,356·082 (5,822)	221·768 (548)	..	68·797 (170)	14·973 (37)	237·550 (587)	1,878·148 (4,641)
Shirala	416·017 (1,028)	1,503·004 (3,714)	6,116·424 (15,114)	384·856 (951)	..	191·012 (472)	..	118·168 (292)	464·175 (1,147)
Miraj	989·457 (2,445)	882·215 (2,180)	0·405 (1)	..	..	62·726 (155)	..	79·123 (197)	3,724·325 (9,203)
Jath	..	355·314 (878)	9·308 (23)	..	11·736 (29)	396·187 (979)	..	6·475 (16)	1,318·062 (3,257)

*Figures in brackets show area in acres.

TABLE No. 38—*contd.*

(Area in hectares)*

Taluka	Food Crops—contd					Non-Food Crops			
	Chillis	Turmeric	Potato	Miscellaneous food crops	Total food crops	Cotton	Groundnut	Coconut	Tobacco
(1)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)
Tasgaon	978·935 (2,419)	1,239·553 (3,063)	3·642 (9)	287·731 (711)	7,398·065 (18,281)	27·923 (69)	..	9·712 (24)	..
Khanapur	1,195·847 (2,955)	1,016·571 (2,512)	103·600 (256)	679·063 (1,678)	12,707·950 (31,402)	1,005·240 (2,484)	310·799 (768)	..	8·094 (20)
Walwa	1,320·895 (3,264)	659·233 (1,629)	8·498 (21)	65·154 (161)	8,739·599 (21,596)	111·693 (276)	3·642 (9)	4·047 (10)	302·705 (748)
Shirala	577·082 (1,426)	320·106 (791)	20·234 (50)	853·887 (2,110)	10,964·562 (27,094)	1,551·566 (3,834)	..	..	..
Miraj	264·664 (654)	330·628 (817)	3·237 (8)	120·192 (297)	6,457·574 (15,957)	..	..	..	19·829 (49)
Jath	2·023 (5)	29·947 (74)	1·214 (3)	19·020 (47)	2,149·287 (5,311)	..	..	..	..

*Figures in brackets show area in acres.

TABLE No. 38—*concld.*

(Area in hectares)*

Taluka	Non-Food Crops—*contd.*				
	Indian Hemp	Fodder crops	Miscellaneous non-food crops	Total non-food crops.	Total area under irrigated crops
(1)	(20)	(21)	(22)	(23)	(24)
Tasgaon	..	122·620 (303)	25·495 (63)	185·751 (459)	7,583·815 (18,740)
Khanapur	..	292·588 (723)	16·997 (42)	1,633·717 (4,037)	14,341·667 (35,439)
Walwa	..	815·037 (2,014)	793·184 (1,960)	2,030·309 (5,017)	10,769·908 (26,613)
Shirala	..	1,115·719 (2,757)	151·352 (374)	2,818·638 (6,965)	13,779·558 (34,050)
Miraj	262·236 (648)	157·827 (390)	169·563 (419)	609·457 (1,506)	7,067·031 (17,463)
Jath	..	10·117 (25)	33·184 (82)	43·301 (107)	2,192 589 (5,418)

*Figures in brackets show area in acres.

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation. SEED SUPPLY.

Healthy and vigorous seed contribute towards a better yield. Farmers, therefore, always try to secure good seed. Almost all the cultivators preserve the grains of the selected earheads from vigorous plants at the time of harvesting for seed purposes in the next sowing season. Sometimes cultivators obtain seed from big cultivators and from various localities known for quality seed.

The Agriculture department also propagates improved strains of various food grains, vegetables, fruits, etc. The five seed development centres at Tasgaon, Jath, Kupwad, Digraj and Bevur supply improved seed to the cultivators in the district. The seed obtained from Government farms is multiplied on the farms of registered seed growers from whom it is purchased by the department at a premium of eight annas per Bengali maund over the current local price. Sometimes cultivators directly purchase seed from the progressive cultivators or the registered seed growers. Seeds are also distributed by the Panchayat Samiti through the *gramsevaks*.

MANURES.

Manures and fertilisers help in conserving the fertility of the soil and result in increasing agricultural production. The application of fertilisers and manures among other factors has become essential to make agronomy more profitable and to meet the increasing demand for food grains. The farm yard manure which is prepared out of dung, urine of cattle, ash and other refuse is not enough to meet the local requirements. The cultivators, therefore, with Governmental aid and propaganda have started applying extensively the chemical fertilisers to crops grown in the district. The method of sheep folding in the field is also observed.

Green manuring is practised by sowing the *tag* seeds in June and burying their vegetative growth in the field, by means of a hoe. This adds nitrogen to the soil. Manure is also prepared in the compost pits measuring 10′ × 6′ × 3′. The agriculture department gives various subsidies to encourage preparation of compost. The town compost scheme, rural compost scheme and farmyard manure scheme have been introduced in the district.

The quantity of manure to be applied varies from field to field and from crop to crop. The application of fertilisers, however requires abundant supply of water.

PESTS.

Agricultural production suffers heavily due to various pests and diseases. A detailed account of the major pests and diseases of important crops in the district is given in what follows. The loss due to different pests in the district cannot be generalised as the damage done by pests depends upon the severity of infestation in any particular year. The remedial measures suggested against different pests described below are such as may be adopted by the cultivators at minimum cost.

Of Jowar.

Jowar is generally affected by pests such as, stem-borer, army worms, deccan wingless grasshopper, flea beetle and aphids. The nature and extent of damage caused by these pests and their various control measures are given below.

Stem-borer (*Chilo zonellus*).—The caterpillars with dark spots on the body bore into the stems and feed on the whorl causing dead hearts. Moths come out of pupae in 7 to 10 days' time. They are active from June to November. *Kharif* jowar suffers most. The pest being internal feeder, it could be checked by preventive methods only. The affected plants are pulled out and destroyed. After the harvest of the crop the stubbles are collected and burnt so as to destroy the hibernating larvae.

Army Worms (*Cirphis unipuncta*).—The caterpillars are dull greenish coloured with broad light-coloured stripes running along its length on either side of the body and feed on tender leaves mostly at night. Generally they migrate from one field to another and defoliate the plants. The pest assumes epidemic form when there is a long break in rains after an initial good start and remains active from June to November.

Five per cent BHC dust at the rate of 13.608 kg. (30 lbs.) per acre, which is generally broadcast in the evening, controls the pest. The ploughing of the infested fields after the harvest of the crop also helps much to expose pupae.

The Deccan Wingless Grasshopper (*Colemania Sphenaroides*).—The wingless nymphs and adults feed on leaves and often completely devour them. They remain active during the period from June to December. Dusting 10 per cent BHC at the rate of 9.072 kg. (20 lbs.) per acre controls the pest effectively. Ploughing the land after the harvest of the crop also helps to control the pest.

The pests, surface grasshopper and jowar stem fly, which damage jowar and other millets, are very similar to the deccan wingless grasshopper and the jowar stem-borer respectively. They can be controlled in the same way as the deccan wingless grasshopper and jowar stem-borer are controlled. The flea beetles which feed on the middle part of the leaves can be controlled by 10 per cent BHC dusting.

Aphids which remain stationary mostly on the lower surface of leaves, suck the sap of leaves and secrete sugary substance causing sugary disease. Spraying with nicotine sulphate 1 lb. in 363.680 litres (80 gallons) of water with 2.268 kg. (5 lbs.) soap or 2 to 4 ozs. endrin per acre can effectively control the pest.

Of Bajri.

Blister Beetle (*Lytta sp*) (*Hinge or Bali*).—The black adult insects with yellowish brown stripes across their wings secrete an acid substance from their body and when crushed on the human body, it causes a blister. They reduce the setting of grains. The pest

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation. PESTS.

is active from August to December and can be effectively controlled by 5 per cent BHC dust at the rate of 9.072 kg. (20 lbs.) per acre.

The pests, *viz.*, the deccan wingless grasshopper, the surface grasshopper and army worms also damage Bajri crop. The nature and extent of damage due to these pests and their controlling measures are the same as accounted under jowar.

Of Groundnut.

Aphid.—The pest aphid damages groundnut. It can be controlled by dusting 10 per cent BHC, spraying of 0.16 per cent DDT or spraying of 40 per cent Nicotine sulphate.

Pod-sucking.—Bugs infest young pods and suck the juice. 5 per cent BHC dusting may be tried when the bugs are noticed on the plants.

Of Wheat.

White ants (*Termes sp.*) *valavi*, are whitish yellow, soft bodied, flat insects with mouth parts suited for chewing or biting purpose. The workers of the pest feed on the roots of the plants as a result of which the affected plants die off. They cut and tunnel into plants, wood, timber and reduce the material to powder. The pest can be controlled by fumigating the termitoria with carbondisulphide and chloroform mixture or petrol or methyl bromide.

Of Gram.

The gram-pod-borer.—The caterpillars feed on tender foliage and young pods. They make holes in the pods and eat the developing seeds. The pest is active from November to March.

It can be controlled by 0.2 per cent DDT spray obtained by diluting 1 lb. of 50 per cent water-dispersible DDT powder in 113.650 litres (25 gallons) of water. About 272.760 to 363.680 litres (60 to 80 gallons) on a young crop and 454.600 litres (100 gallons) on a grown-up crop are generally required. Thorough ploughing after harvesting the crop also helps to control the pest.

Of Paddy.

The Stem-borer (*Schoenobins bipunctifer*).—The caterpillars are pale, yellowish white and smooth, and are about 25.4 mm. (1") long when full-grown with the head having orange-yellow colour. They bore into the stems of paddy plants with the result that empty earheads are produced.

The pest can be controlled by preventive measures only, as the same is an internal feeder. These include (i) collection and destruction of stubbles after the harvest, (ii) removal and destruction of the affected plants showing whitish shoots or dead hearts. The crop is also affected by army worms. This pest is controlled by the same measures as detailed under jowar army worms.

Paddy Grasshopper (*Hieroglyphus banian fb.*).—The adults are uniformly greenish without spots. with the hind tibia coloured blue. Immediately behind the head on the prothorax,

it has 2 to 3 dark black streaks. Both nymphs and adults eat the foliage of plants and also feed on the developing earheads of paddy and other crops. If the pest occurs annually, it is best to plough the fields and crush the egg masses by clod-crushing with a heavy plank during April and May. The pest is successfully controlled by dusting 5 per cent BHC powder at the rate of 9.072 to 11.339 kg. (20 to 25 lbs.) per acre.

Paddy blue beetle (*Leptispa pygmoea*) *wcet.*—Beetles feed on leaves and green shoots of the young paddy crop with the result that the plants turn white and dry up. The infestation generally takes place before flowering. The pest can be checked by dusting 5 per cent BHC dust at the rate of 6.804 to 9.072 kg. (15 to 20 lbs.) per acre.

Paddy Gall Fly (*Pachydiplosis oryzae*) *Kane.*—The pest gets access to the growing bud, lacerates the tender tissues and thus spoils the bud which cannot produce the normal stem to bear an earhead or leaves. Infestation is highest during the tillering stage of paddy. The pest is active from July to November The "silver shoots" and alternate hosts like grass on which the pest breeds should be removed.

Rice Hispa (*Hispa asmigera*) *Karpa.*—The pest creates patches on leaves which ultimately turn white and dry up. This pest many times appears along with the paddy blue beetle and can be readily controlled by 5 per cent BHC dust used for blue beetle control.

Rice-Earhead Bugs (*Leptocorisa acuta*).—These suck the juice from milky grains which as a result become shrivelled. The pest can be controlled by dusting with 5 per cent BHC dust at the rate of 6.804 to 9.072 kg. (15 to 20 lbs.) per acre.

In addition to these pests of paddy there are other minor pests such as rice case worm, rice skipper, crabs, leaf hopper, paddy leaf roller, etc.

Of Sugarcane.

Sugarcane Stem-borer (*Argyria stiticraspis*).—The caterpillars enter the plants from the side at ground level by making holes in the stalk and bore with the result that the central shoot dries up, causing "dead hearts". The control measures are as follows:—

(1) The affected plants having "dead hearts" should be removed, (2) Ratooning of cane should be avoided, (3) Ploughing the fields and burning the stubbles also help to check the pest.

Sugarcane top shoot borer (*Scirpohaga nivella* and *S. mono stigma*).—The punctures on the leaves, the death of the central shoot and the bunchy top are the characteristics of this pest.

Sugarcane Grasshopper.—The details and the controlling measures of the pest are the same as described under paddy.

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PESTS.

Of Sugarcane.

Sugarcane Leaf-hoppers (Pyrilla).—The bugs suck the sap of cane leaves from the lower surface. The leaves then get dried up. The damaged leaves look pale, sickly and turn black due to the growth of black fungus on them.

Dusting the crop with 5 per cent BHC at the rate of 13.608 to 18.144 kg. (30 to 40 lbs.) and 22.679 to 27.215 kg. (50 to 60 lbs.) per acre in the pre and post monsoon periods respectively destroys the pest. The removal of *pachat* of the infested crop also helps in controlling the pest.

Of Cotton

Spotted Boll-worm (Earis fabia) Bond ali.—The caterpillars attack buds as well as bolls and stain the lint. The infested buds and bolls are mostly shed, but if they remain on the plant, they open prematurely. The pest is active throughout the year. Removal of stubbles and destruction of affected shoots and malvaceous weeds are the feasible methods to control the pest.

Pink Boll-worm also affects buds and bolls. The caterpillars feed inside the bolls and make them drop down. The pest can be controlled by fumigating the cotton seeds with carbon-di-sulphide at the rate of 1 oz. to 15 c.ft. The destruction of infested bolls also helps to check the pest.

Cotton Jassid (Tudtude).—The nymphs and adults pierce the plant tissues and suck the cell sap. The pest is active during the monsoon season. Dusting 5 per cent DDT mixed with an equal quantity of sulphur effectively controls the pest.

Cotton Thrips.—The insects suck the oozing cell sap. The pest is more active from August to October. It can be easily controlled by DDT, BHC or nicotine sulphate. 5 % DDT should be used in admixture with sulphur in the proportion of 1:1. Nicotine sulphate can be used at 1 part in 600 parts of water with 1.814 kg. (4 lbs.) of soap.

Cotton Aphid (Mava)—The damage caused by these insects is somewhat similar to that caused by cotton jassids. The pest can be effectively controlled by spraying it with nicotine sulphate at the rate of 0.454 kg. (1 lb.) in 363.680 litres (80 gallons) of water with 2.268 kg. (5 lbs.) of soap. DDT should be avoided.

Cotton Leaf Roller.—The caterpillars roll up the leaves, and feed from the margin while remaining hidden. Dusting the crop with 5% BHC or 5% DDT effectively controls the pest. The rolled-up leaves should be removed.

Red cotton bug and dusky cotton bug, are of minor importance and can be controlled by dusting of 5% BHC.

Of Chilli.

Chilli crop is generally affected by the chilli thrips. The infested leaves curl up and symptoms locally known as *"murda"* appear. They suck the sap of the leaves and stem, causing reduction in size. Spraying with tobacco decoction helps to check the pest.

Tobacco, though the source of nicotine used for insect control, is also infested by insects.

Of Tobacco.

Tobacco Leaf-eating caterpillars.—The caterpillars feed on tender leaves and juicy stems at night.

Insecticidal measures include dusting with calcium arsenate at the rate of ten to fifteen lbs. per acre. After the harvest of the crop the land should be ploughed so as to expose pupae.

Stem borer.—The caterpillars are small and brownish-white in colour with a dark head and are about half an inch long when full-grown. They bore into stems and cause gall like swelling on them. The plants throw out a bushy growth. The affected stems should be removed.

Cut worm: (Agrotis).—The caterpillars are active during the night. They cut the young plants at the ground level and feed on tender leaves and shoots.

The pest is controlled by the use of poison baits of 5% paris green or benzene hexachloride.

Surface Grasshopper.—They eat leaves and tender shoots of plants. The pest can be controlled by 5% BHC dust at the rate of 9.072 kg. (20 lbs.) per acre and poison bait at the rate of 13.608 to 22.679 kg. (30 to 50 lbs.) per acre.

White Fly.—The nymphs and adults suck the sap from leaves, which thus turn brownish and affect fruit-setting. The nymphs also secrete a honey-dew which attracts fungus which in turn gives the tree blackish appearance. The pest can be controlled successfully by two applications of good spray of rosin compound at an interval of a week.

Aphid (Mava).—The aphids are tiny, black, soft bodied insects and feed on stems and young shoots by sucking the sap from the tender parts of plants.

Spraying the crop with nicotine sulphate in the proportion of 1 oz. of nicotine into 22.730 litres (5 gallons) of water with 4 oz. of soap gives a good measure of control. 181.840 to 272.760 litres (40 to 60 gallons) of such spray per acre are required. Nearly two to three sprayings at weekly intervals are required during late December or early January.

Of Safflower.

This is one of the most important commercial oilseed crops in the district. The following insects cause damage to it.

Aphid.—The nature of damage and controlling measures are the same as described under tobacco.

Leaf-eating caterpillar.—The caterpillars are green when young and then turn darkish brown. During the early stages of the crop, they eat leaves and cause defoliation. The plants can be dusted with 5 per cent BHC at the rate of 6.803 to 9.072 kg. (15 to 20 lbs.) per acre.

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PESTS.

Of Maize

Pink borer.—The damage done by the pest and the controlling measures are the same as described under jowar. The other pests, *viz*., army worms, the deccan wingless grasshopper, the banded grasshopper, the surface grasshopper, which damage the crop are described in detail under jowar.

DISEASES.

In addition to the damage done by pests, the crops suffer from various plant diseases. The belowmentioned are the important diseases of crops in the Sangli district.

Of Jowar.

Smuts of jowar (*Kani* or *Dane kani*).—Grain, loose, head and long, these are the four types of smuts of jowar. The disease cannot be recognised until the earhead comes out. The affected ovaries turn into conical porcelain white sori which contain black powder. The disease causes damage to both *rabi* and *kharif* crops. Seed treatment with sulphur (300 mesh fine) at the rate of 100 gms. per 30 kg. of seed controls the disease effectively. Systematic collection of affected earheads in case of head and long smuts helps in controlling the disease.

Leaf rust of jowar (*Tambera*).—On the diseased plant reddish brown pustules break on leaves and let out red mass of uredospores which later turn into black. The disease is prevalent during the growth of the crop. Use of resistant varieties is the only effective way of controlling the disease.

Of Paddy.

Paddy blast (*Karpa*).—The disease first manifests on leaves as small spindle shaped brown spots with white centres on seedlings and ultimately reduce the yield of grains. The disease affects seedlings during July and August, while the grown up crop is affected from September to November. The disease can be controlled as follows:—

(i) seed treatment with organo mercurial seed dresser containing 1 per cent organic mercury at the rate of 110 gms. for 50 kg. of seeds.

(ii) Dipping of seedlings in bordeaux mixture 3:3:50 before transplanting.

Of Bajri.

Ergot.—The ergotoxin is proved to be dangerous to both cattle and human beings if consumed. Sugary secretions are noticed oozing out from the affected flowers in the earhead followed by dark elongated sclerotial bodies in place of grains. The disease is prevalent during September and November.

The controlling measures are—(1) Dipping the grains in 20 per cent salt solution, skiming off sclerotial bodies and burning them and washing the grains with water 2—3 times to remove the traces of salt. The grain could then be used for seed and food purposes.

Downy mildew of Bajri, Green ear (*gosavi*).—In the early stage infected plants look pale and in advanced stage earheads get transformed into green leaves popularly called '*gosavi*'. This disease is prevalent from July to September. It can be controlled

by systematic roguing in early stages and by flooding before sowing.

Of Wheat.

Black Stem rust (*Tambera*).—The disease appears as reddish brown elongated linear eruptive spots known as pustules mostly on the stem and also on leaves. Later on the reddish brown pustules turn into black pustules. The disease is prevalent from November to February. The disease can be carried by wind. Resistant varieties such as *kenphad* 25, *MHD* 345 should be used.

Loose smut (*kani or kajali*).—The disease becomes manifest only when earheads are formed as black ear. It is prevalent from January to March. Infection being inside the seed, a special method has been evolved to control the disease. The seed is soaked in cold water from 8 to 12 a.m. during the first fortnight of May and then spread on galvanised iron sheets in hot sun for 4 hours and stirred periodically. Subsequently the seed is dried in shed and then stored in gunny bag, with insecticides, *viz.*, pyrethrum, DDT. and BHC.

Of Tur.

Tur Wilt (*Ubhal* or *Mar*).—The affected plant appears sickly. The leaves drop down and the affected plants wither and die. The disease is sporadic and can be controlled by using resistant varieties.

Of Groundnut.

Tikka.—The first sign of the disease is the appearance of round purplish brown spots on one to one and half months old plants Later on the spots expand in size and become blackish in colour and are surrounded by bright yellow halo when mature. The disease can be controlled by spraying 5:5:50 bordeaux mixture or copper fungicide containing 50 per cent metallic copper. The spraying may be done in July, August. and September.

Of Cotton.

Anthracnose (*Kawadi*).—The disease appears on seedling stage during the months of June-July and on bolls-forming stage in the months of October and November. The disease can be controlled by treating the seed with organic mercury at the rate of 60 gms. for 8 kg. of seed. The affected debris should be destroyed.

Black arm (*Tikkya or Karpa*).—Mature bolls when attacked open prematurely and the lint from such bolls gets yellow strains. The American cottons are highly susceptible. The dry cotton is affected by the disease from July to December while the irrigated cotton suffers from July to March. The controlling measures are:—

(1) The seed is heated with organo mercurial compound containing 1 per cent organic mercury at the rate of 60 gms. for 16 kg. of seed, and (2) Bordeaux mixture 3:3:50 is sprayed first in June and secondly in September.

Of Turmeric.

Leaf blotch (*haladivaril Tikkya*).—Numerous pale yellow spots appear on both the surfaces of leaves. These spots later on turn golden yellow and finally brownish slightly raised blotchy spots which are mostly rectangular and measuring 2 mm. in width.

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation. DISEASES, Of Mango.

The disease is prevalent from the middle of September to February end. The disease can be controlled by spraying bordeaux mixture 3:3:50 at the rate of 454.600 litres (100 gallons) per acre.

Powdery mildew of mango (*Ambyavaril Bhuri*).—The whitish coating which appears on the inflorescence later on turns black. The coating chiefly consists of spores and mycelium of the fungus. The disease prevails from January to February end, and can be controlled by dusting the trees with sulphur (200 mesh) plus D.D.T. (4:1) when they blossom.

TENURES

The predominant tenure in the Sangli district is the survey or *rayatwari* tenure. Prior to the implementation of the various land tenure abolition Acts, the *rayatwari* tenure accounted for 67 per cent of the total occupied land. The other two tenures are the special tenure and *inam* tenure and miscellaneous or restricted tenure. No land is exempted from payment of land revenue except under contract or agreement under the prevalent law.

Under the *rayatwari* tenure, the basis is the assessment of an individual holding arrived at by dividing the holding into a survey number, or a sub-division of a survey number. The settlement of land revenue is made with each individual i.e. with each *rayat* and that is why the tenure is known as *rayatwari*. Under this tenure, the occupant is himself the landlord and not a tenant as in the *zamindari* system.

Under the *inam* tenure the land is held on assessment which is not liable to revision and, in some cases, it is even free of any assessment

The land revenue assessment is fixed under the provisions of the Land Revenue Code as amended in 1939. Assessment is based not only on advantages arising from rainfall or kind of crop sown, etc., but also on those arising from soil, water resources and location. Agricultural lands have hence been divided in three main classes *viz.* dry crop, rice and garden lands and the classification value of soils of different grades of productivity are fixed in terms of annas. Land revenue settlements are ordinarily made every thirty years for a taluka. The lands used for cultivation are divided into groups on consideration of physical features and other factors mentioned in section 117 G of the Land Revenue Code. The assessment is fixed on a survey number and sub-divisions of survey numbers on the basis of standard rates fixed for the group, as the result of a settlement or revision settlement in accordance with the rules as laid down in the Land Revenue Code. In the case of an original settlement the standard rate for a group should not exceed 35 per cent of the average of the rental values of all occupied lands in the group for a period of five years preceding immediately the year in which the settlement is directed. In the case of a revision settlement the existing aggregate assessment should not be increased by more than 25 per cent. in the case of

a taluka or a group or more than 50 per cent in the case of a survey number or sub-division thereof. These limits can be relaxed under special circumstances (such as highly irrigated areas). Government may declare after a settlement is effected, that the assessment has been fixed with reference to specified prices of specified classes of the agricultural produce. When such a declaration has been made, the Government may reduce or enhace the assessment in the area concerned by granting a rebate or by placing a surcharge on the assessment by a reference to the alteration of the price of the classes of the agricultural produce as specified in the declaration.

The assessment fixed under the settlement is not collected in full in all years. In years of distress, suspension of half or full land revenue is given on the basis of the condition of crops. The annual land revenue demand is then fixed on the basis of *annewari*, which means an estimate of the yield of crops in a particular year relative to the standard normal yield which is equated to sixteen annas. The land revenue thus suspended for one year becomes due for recovery in the next or subsequent years, provided that the crops are in a satisfactory condition. In case there is a succession of bad seasons, the suspensions for the preceding three years are turned into remissions. The occupant holds his lands direct from the Government. He has a right to hold the land in perpetuity so long as he pays the land revenue to the Government. He has full powers to sell, mortgage, sub-let or dispose of the land in the manner he thinks fit. Till 1946 the occupant of a land holding could lease a portion or whole of his holding on annual tenancy at a rent agreed upon with the tenant. But this right has been restricted by an amendment to the Bombay Tenancy Act, 1939, under which all tenancies were given a duration of a minimum period of ten years. The maximum rent was also fixed.

A modified form of the *rayatwari* tenure known as the "new tenure" was introduced by the enactment of a new Section 73-A and the insertion of a new proviso to Section 66 of the Bombay Land Revenue Code of 1901. These restrictions are designed to protect the occupants against their imprudent readiness to alienate the lands and the security. This form of tenure applies only to new occupancies granted. Under this tenure, lands are granted at concessional rates of occupancy price only to *bona-fide* cultivators belonging to backward classes and that too on condition that the land shall not be transferred except with the permission of the Collector. The land is of course subject to the usual land revenue. After abolition of the various *inams* under the provisions of the Land Revenue Abolition Acts, the resumed lands have been regranted to the original holders on similar conditions.

There is then the *inam* tenure. The word *inam* in its primary sense means a gift and in its secondary sense it means a grant. The land under this tenure is technically called "alienated land" which means "transferred in so far as the rights of

Government to payment of the rent of land revenue are concerned, wholly or partially, to the ownership of any person" as defined in the Land Revenue Code. The main feature of this tenure is that the land is held on a reduced assessment not liable to revision and, in some cases, held free of assessment. The *inam* lands have now been settled on their present holders under the Survey Settlement Act of 1863. These *inams* (including both lands and cash allowances) can be broadly classified into two kinds; firstly those held on the condition of performing some office or service or discharging some obligation or trust (in some cases, the duty of trust to be fulfilled was charitable or religious); and secondly, those encumbered by any such burden, condition or liability. *Saranjams* or other political tenures (*inam* class I), religious endowments (*inam* class III), service *inams* (*inams* class IV, V and VI) fall under the first category while personal *inams* (class II) fall under the second category.

Political *inams*, including *saranjams* and *jahagirs*, generally mean grants by the State for performance of civil or military duty or for the maintenance of the personal dignity of nobles and high officials. Some of them were guaranteed by a special treaty between the Moghals and the British Government, while others were settled by the Inam Commission. In the former case, the tenure is hereditary and is to last in perpetuity while in the latter case, it is to last for a short or long period as fixed by the Commission. Ordinarily these *inams* are impartible and inalienable. There are instances in which a *jahagir* has been held to be partible and alienable, but generally devolution of such *inams* is by the rule of lineal primogeniture, younger members being entitled to maintenance. According to the provisions of the Bombay *Saranjams, Jagirs* and other *Inams* of Political Nature Resumption Rules, 1952 the *inams* of political nature consisting of grant of land with or without the exemption from payment of land revenue have been abolished from 1st November 1952 and the *saranjams* consisting of exemption from payment of land revenue only were abolished from August 1, 1953, if the amount of such exemption exceeded Rs. 5,000 and from 1st August 1955 in all other cases. Under the provisions of the Merged Territories and Areas (Jagir) Abolition Act, 1953, the *jagirs* in merged states have been abolished from August 1, 1954.

Personal or *jat inams* (Class II) are gifts conferred on individuals. Some of them are in the nature of compensations. These are heritable and transferable properties of the holders or their lawful successors subject to the payment of fixed dues to the Government. Under the Bombay Personal *Inams* Abolition Act (XLII of 1953), which came into force from 20th June 1953, all personal *inams* were extinguished; in the case of personal *inams* consisting of exemption from the payment of land revenue only either wholly or partly from August 1, 1953, if the amount of such exemption is equal to or exceeds Rs. 5,000 and from 1st August 1955, in all other cases. The area affected by this Act is 1,09,906.36 acres.

Devasthan inams (Class III) are lands granted to religious bodies for the maintenance of temples or mosques and to similar institutions. The grant is made in perpetuity and the amount of land revenue fixed is not liable to revision. *Devasthan inams* are ordinarily inalienable and impartible. Succession thereto is regulated by the terms of the grant and the customs and usages of the endowment. The holders for the time being manage the *inams* in the capacity of trustees for the benefit of the endowment.

All *kulkarni watans* along with the right of services were abolished from May 1, 1951 by the Bombay Paragana and Kulkarni Watans Abolition Act, 1950. Under the provisions of section IV (1) of the Act, the holder was allowed to credit occupancy price for the regrant of the land on or before 30th April, 1956. The resumed lands for which the ex-holders failed to pay occupancy price vested in the Government on 1st May, 1956 and the *watan* land not regranted to the holders of the *watan* is to be granted to the persons in actual possession thereof on payment of occupancy price equal to the proper market value to be fixed on the basis of statistics of sales of similar lands in the locality.

Service *inams* are holdings of lands or rights to receive cash payment or to levy customary fees or perquisites for the performance of certain services to the community or to the Government. The holders of such *inams* or *watans* are divided into two classes; firstly, district officers like *Desais, Deshmukhs* or *Deshpandes* who were the chief instruments for the collection of revenue under the *Peshwas*; and secondly, village officers useful to the Government like the *Patils* or the *Kulkarnis* who were given an adequate remuneration in the form of land or cash and village servants useful to the community such as the *hajams*, the *kumbhars*, the *lohars*, the *sutars* and the *mochis* among other artisans. The Bombay Service Inams Abolition Act, 1953 abolished from April 1, 1954, all *inams* assigned for the performance of services useful to the community. The resumed lands of which the holder has not paid occupancy price before 31st March 1959, vest in the Government on 1st May 1956. These lands are to be regranted to persons in actual possession thereof on payment of occupancy price equal to twenty-six times the assessment, if the holder of the service *inams* is in their actual possession. However, in the case of a holder, who is not a holder of the service *inam* but is in its actual possession and has permanent tenancy rights, an occupancy price equal to six times the rent is to be charged. In all other cases, an occupancy price to be charged is equal to the proper market value of the land. The Bombay Inferior Village Watans Abolition Act, 1958, and the Maharashtra Revenue Patils (Abolition of Officers) Act, 1962 put an end to the *inam* assigned for the performances of services such as those given to the *mahars*, *ramoshis*, and *patils*.

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

TENANCY

Tenancy is a feature of land tenure system in many under-developed countries particularly in India where land tenures were comprised of various types of *inams*, cash grants, *watans*, non-rayatwari tenures, etc., cultivation of land by tenants being a predominant feature. Even after much legislative enactments and reforms, the class of tenants still exists but they are no more the tenants at will.

In the past the relations between landlords and tenants in Maharashtra were based on customs, usages and agreements between the two, the tenant having no legal protection. The increase in population and the resultant growing pressure on land compelled a large number of agriculturists to accept tillage of land from the landlords on any conditions they might choose. The migration of landlords to the neighbouring cities and towns due to unfavourable economic conditions in rural areas also, to a great extent, caused the lease of land to tenants. However, for want of legal protection and fixed tenure, the tenant cultivators did not have any stakes in the land they cultivated. During this period the landlord-tenant relationship was regulated by the provisions of the Bombay Land Revenue Code, 1879, the Mamlatdar's Court Act, 1906 and the Khoti Settlement Act, 1880 and other legislations applicable to local areas. However, these enactments neither stopped the exploitation of the tenants nor they gave him any equality of status with the landlord.

When the Congress Ministry assumed office in the State in 1937, it declared its policy of enacting legislation to transfer the ownership of land to the tillers of the soil. It was on this background that the Government of Bombay passed the Bombay Tenancy Act of 1939. The Act aimed at ameliorating the condition of tenants without injuring the legitimate interests of the landlords. The Act introduced the concept of "Protected Tenancy" according to which, the tenants who held lands continuously for a period of not less than six years immediately preceding 1st January 1938, were declared protected tenants. Such tenants got protection from eviction. The Act gave the tenants for the first time a fixity of tenure. In the initial stage the Act was applied to the districts of Thana, West Khandesh, Surat and Dharwar as an experimental measure. The Act was applied to the whole of the state in 1946. The Act fixed the rent at $\frac{1}{4}$ and $\frac{1}{3}$ in the case of irrigated and non-irrigated crops, respectively. After independence, the problem of agricultural production assumed dimensional importance. Taking into account the rapid growth of population, necessity of economic, scientific and profitable agricultural production, and lastly the necessity of preserving the tenants interests by encouraging the peasant proprietorship the previous Act was amended and a new Act entitled, Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1948 was enacted.

The Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1948 was enforced in the district from 28th December 1948. The provisions of Section 135-B of the Bombay Land Revenue Code, on

recording the rights of tenants in the record-of-rights, were made applicable to all tenures other than perpetual tenures. Under the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1948, as it stood prior to August 1, 1956, there were two classes of tenants *viz.* protected and ordinary. The protected tenants had special rights and privileges such as right to purchase land from the landlord, to exchange the land held as tenant and to erect a farm house, etc. Up to the year 1951-52, the maximum rent, payable by a tenant was not to exceed 1/4th of the crop in the case of irrigated land and 1/3rd of the crop of *jirayat* land. These limits were reduced to 1/6th for both the classes of lands from 1952-53. The maximum and the minimum rent payable by a tenant from August 1, 1956 was to be five times and two times, respectively, of the assessment of lands. Thus the tenants enjoyed fixity of tenure to a certain extent and fixity of rent also. The Act as amended in 1956 made a change in favour of the tenants by conferring on him the right to purchase the land from the landlords, with certain reservations in the cases of small land owners, disabled persons, minors etc. The work of conferring the occupancy rights on the tenants under section 32-G is in progress. The total number of applications received for conferring the right of ownership on tenants is as under—

Taluka	Number of enquiries
(1) Khanapur	13,736
(2) Tasgaon	9,141
(3) Walwa	13,300
(4) Miraj	9,572
(5) Jath	10,490
(6) Shirala	8,462

The following table indicates the number of applications filed every year under the Tenancy Act, and other particulars thereof from 1948 to 1963:—

TABLE No. 39.

ADMINISTRATION OF THE TENANCY ACT DURING 1948—1963 IN SANGLI DISTRICT.

Taluka	No. of cases filed under the Tenancy Act	No. of cases disposed of	No. of cases pending	No. of cases decided in favour of tenants	No. of cases decided in favour of landlords	Rest of the cases
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Khanapur ..	6,174	5,178	966	3,737	497	944
Tasgaon ..	4,766	4,081	685	3.232	849	..
Walwa .	6,005	3,963	2,042	2 563	690	710
Miraj ..	6,198	6,113	85	2,969	3,144	..
Jath ..	746	726	20	521	205	..
Shirala ..	4,712	3,639	1,073	2,535	1,104	..
Total ..	28,601	23,700	4,871	15,557	6,489	1,654

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TENANCY

TABLE No. 40.

TABLE SHOWING THE TOTAL NO. OF TENANTS UNDER DIFFERENT CLASSES IN SANGLI DISTRICT.

Taluka (1)	No. of protected tenants (2)	No. of ordinary tenants (3)	No. of permanent tenants (4)	No. of owner cultivators (5)	Date on which the information was recorded (6)
Khanapur	182	6,553	2,973	407	31-3-63
Tasgaon	4,238	3,953	835	39,774	Do.
Walwa	6,604	426	3,721	30,228	Do.
Miraj	2,768	5,255	1,315	39,227	Do.
Jath	1,672	4,118	..	22,600	Do.
Shirala.. .. .	881	2,999	1,764	17,711	Do.
Total .	16,345	23,304	10,608	1,49,917	

RURAL WAGES.

Agricultural operations in the district are dependent on manual labour. Most of the agriculturists employ casual labourers when there is pressure of work on the farm. Generally these labourers are landless persons and small holders of land. Persons who are forced to seek employment outside their villages out of poverty are engaged in the agricultural operations. Such labourers are usually paid either in cash or in kind or both in cash and in kind daily or at the end of the work. The daily wage-rates however do not change with different types of work unless the work requires skilled services. Generally men labourers are paid more than the women labourers as men undertake heavy work whereas women attend to light work. Women are not usually employed on yearly basis. On an average men labourers are paid between Rs. two and Rs. three while women labourers are paid between Rs. 1.50 and Rs. 2 in the areas roundabout towns, factories and irrigated areas. In the non-irrigated areas, especially in the remote parts, the rates of wages of both the labourers, men and women, are less by 50 per cent. There is another category of agricultural labourers known as *saldars*. These *saldars*, annual labourers, are usually employed by the big agriculturists. An amount varying from Rs. 150 to Rs. 300 is given to such labourers. They are also provided with one or two dresses and daily meals.

The labour employed in the agricultural sector, however, is temporary as it's services are required during the sowing, weeding, harvesting and threshing seasons only. The casual labourers, therefore, tend to seek such fields of work where they can get work for the whole year. The business centres, the small and large-scale industries and sugar factories in the district are opening now avenues of employment which are more

lucrative than casual labourers. The casual labour for agricultural operations, therefore, is becoming dear and scarce.

The following table gives the average wages of various labourers from 1956-57 to 1961-62:—

TABLE No. 41.

AGRICULTURAL WAGES IN SANGLI DISTRICT FROM 1956-57 TO 1961-62.

Month (1)	Year (2)	Carpenters (3)	Blacksmiths (4)	Cobblers (5)	Field labour (6)	Other agricultural labour (7)	Herdsmen (8)
July ..	1956-57 ..	3·16	3·20	2·50	1·12	1·8	0·94
August ..	Do. ..	3·08	3·15	2·40	1·12	1·8	0·94
September ..	Do. ..	3·08	3·15	3·35	1·17	1·8	0·81
October ..	Do. ..	3·08	3·15	2·35	2·08	1·00	0·81
November ..	Do. ..	3·12	3·10	2·45	1·16	1·04	0·90
December ..	Do. ..	3·12	3·10	2·35	1·12	1·04	0·90
January ..	Do. ..	3·04	3·05	2·35	1·08	1·00	0·90
February ..	Do. ..	3·04	2·85	2·40	1·08	1·00	0·90
March ..	Do. ..	3·12	3·00	2·50	1·04	1·00	0·92
April ..	Do. ..	3·12	3·00	2·50	1·04	1·00	0·92
May ..	Do. ..	3·12	3·00	2·50	1·04	1·00	0·92
June ..	Do. ..	3·12	3·00	2·40	1·12	1·00	0·90
July ..	1957-58 ..	3·08	3·10	2·40	1·04	1·00	0·71
August ..	Do. ..	3·08	3·15	2·40	1·08	1·04	0·76
September ..	Do. ..	3·08	3·15	2·40	1·00	0·96	0·71
October ..	Do. ..	3·08	3·15	2·40	1·00	0·96	0·71
November ..	Do. ..	3·08	3·15	2·00	1·00	0·96	0·71
December ..	Do. ..	3·08	3·10	2·40	1·00	0·96	0·71
January ..	Do. ..	3·00	3·00	2·40	1·04	1·00	0·90
February ..	Do. ..	3·00	3·00	2·40	1·04	1·00	0·90
March ..	Do. ..	2·91	3·00	2·40	1·04	1·00	0·87
April ..	Do. ..	2·91	3·00	2·40	1·08	1·04	0·87
May ..	Do. ..	2·91	3·00	2·40	1·04	1·00	0·90
June ..	Do. ..	2·91	3·00	2·40	1·19	1·08	0·75

TABLE No. 41—*contd.*

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RURAL WAGES.

Month (1)	Year (2)	Carpenters (3)	Blacksmiths (4)	Cobblers (5)	Field labour (6)	Other agricultural labour (7)	Herdsmen (8)
July ..	1958-59 ..	2·91	2·38	2·50	1·19	1·12	0·76
August ..	Do. ..	2·91	3·00	2·45	1·19	1·12	0·81
September ..	Do. ..	2·91	2·85	2·50	1·19	1·12	0·71
October ..	Do. ..	2·91	2·87	2·50	1·12	1·08	0·76
November ..	Do. ..	2·91	2·81	2·50	1·19	1·12	0·76
December ..	Do. ..	2·91	2·90	2·50	1·19	1·16	0·81
January ..	Do. ..	2·91	2·90	2 50	1·19	1·16	0·81
February ..	Do. ..	2·91	3 00	2 60	1 04	1·08	0·81
March ..	Do. ..	2·91	3·00	2·60	1·08	1·08	0·84
April ..	Do. ..	2·91	3·00	2·60	1 08	1·08	0·84
May ..	Do. ..	2·91	2 90	2·49	1·12	1 16	0·76
June ..	Do. ..	2·91	2·90	2·49	1·16	1·16	0·91
July ..	1959-60 ..	2·92	2 ·90	2·50	1·29	1·25	0·91
August ..	Do. ..	2·92	3·00	2 50	1·25	1 20	0·91
September ..	Do. ..	2·92	2·90	2·50	1·25	1·16	0·81
October ..	Do. ..	2·92	3·00	2·50	1·21	1·16	0·81
November ..	Do. ..	2·92	2 90	2 50	1·29	1·22	0 91
December ..	Do. ..	2·92	2 90	2 45	1·25	1·25	0·91
January ..	Do ..	2·92	2·95	2·45	1·17	1·21	0·91
February ..	Do. ..	2·75	2·95	2·45	1·17	1·25	0 91
March ..	Do. ..	2·92	3·00	2 45	1·25	1·33	1·06
April ..	Do. ..	2·75	3·00	2·60	1·25	1·25	0·96
May ..	Do. ..	2·92	3·00	2·60	1·25	1·25	0·96
June ..	Do. ..	2·92	3·00	2·60	1·30	1·25	0·95
July ..	1960-61 ..	2·91	2·85	2·40	1·37	1·29	0·94
August ..	Do. ..	3·00	3·00	2·40	1·57	1·29	1·00
September ..	Do. ..	3·00	3·00	2·20	1·33	1·21	0·86
October ..	Do. ..	3·00	3·00	2·40	1·25	1·21	1·00
November ..	Do. ..	3·00	3·00	2·50	1·33	1·29	1·08

TABLE No. 41—*contd.*

Month (1)	Year (2)	Carpenters (3)	Blacksmiths (4)	Cobblers (5)	Field labour (6)	Other agricultural labour (7)	Herdsmen (8)
December ..	1960-61 ..	3·00	3·00	2·50	1·37	1·25	1·00
January ..	Do. ..	3·00	3·00	2·50	1·37	1·33	1·00
February ..	Do. ..	3·00	3·00	2·50	1·37	1·33	1·00
March ..	Do. ..	3·00	3·00	2·50	1·37	1·41	1·09
April ..	Do. ..	3·00	3·00	2·60	1·37	1·29	0·94
May ..	Do. ..	3·00	3·00	2·40	1·33	1·33	0·94
June ..	Do. ..	3·00	3·00	2·40	1·33	1·33	0·94
July ..	1961-62 ..	2·91	3·00	2·60	1·33	1·37	1·40
August .	Do. ..	2·91	3·00	2·60	1·33	1·37	1·50
September ..	Do. ..	2·91	3·00	2·40	1·28	1·28	1·37
October ..	Do. ..	2·91	3·00	2·60	1·20	1·29	1·37
November ..	Do. ..	2·91	3·00	2·70	1·29	1·37	1·50
December ..	Do. ..	2·91	3·00	2·75	1·29	1·37	1·50
January ..	Do. ..	2·95	3·10	2·70	1·29	1·41	1·50
February ..	Do. ..	3·00	3·30	2·40	1·33	1·42	1·60
March ..	Do. ..	3·08	3·40	2·70	1·37	1·54	1·80
April ..	Do. ..	3·08	3·40	2·80	1·41	1·45	1·50
May ..	Do. ..	3·08	3·40	2·60	1·41	1·50	2·00
June ..	Do. ..	3·08	3·40	2·30	1·41	1·50	1·70

FAMINES. 1396—1408 1460 1520 1629-30

The earliest record[1] of famine is the famous Durga Devi famine, which beginning in 1396, is said to have lasted twelve years and to have spread all over India south of the Narmada. The districts were emptied of their people, and for upwards of thirty years, a very scanty revenue was obtained from the territory between the Godavari and the Krishna[2]. The famine of 1460, which is known as the famine of Damaji Pant, is remembered over the greater part of the Deccan[3]. In 1520, mainly owing to military disturbances, the crops in the Deccan were destroyed and a famine followed[4]. In 1629-30 a severe famine raged

[1] The account of famine between 1396 to 1877 is taken with some changes from Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency Vol. XIX, Satara, 1885 as major portion of the present Sangli district was included in the old Satara district.
[2] Grant Duff's Marathas, P. 59.
[3] Col. Etheridge's Report on Past Famines, 99.
[4] Col. Etheridge's Report on Past Famines, 100.

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throughout the Deccan. The rains failed for two years causing a grievous loss of life[1]. According to local opinion the famine of 1791-92 was the severest ever known. It seems to have come after a series of bad years, when the evils of scanty rainfall were aggravated by disturbance and war. The early rains failed. In October rain fell abundantly, and the famine was ended by a good harvest in the spring of 1792. In Satara, the rupee fetched only six pounds (3 shers) of Indian millet. The Government granted large remissions of revenue, the export of grain was forbidden, and the sale price was fixed. Rice was brought from Bengal to Bombay[2].

1802-03

The famine of 1802-03 which came next in severity to the 1791-92 famine also pressed severely on Satara district. In 1802 rainfall was scanty, but in Satara the harvest would have been good or fair, but for the ravages of Yeshvantrao Holkar and his Pendharis who destroyed the early crops as they were coming to maturity and prevented the late crops being sown. This scarcity was followed by the failure of the late rains in 1803. The local loss and scarcity were increased by the inflow of starving people from the districts of the North Deccan where the failure of rain was more complete than in Satara. The result was that the famine was almost as severe in Satara as in the North Deccan. The pressure was greatest in July and August 1804, and was so grievous that, according to local information, men lived on human flesh. Corn is said to have been sold at two pounds (*1 sher*) a rupee. About 25,000 strangers are said to have flocked into the town of Wai, in the hope of obtaining relief from the liberality of the Pant Pratinidhi, Raste, and other wealthy families and no fewer than 10,000 persons are said to have died in the town of Wai alone. Abundance of water and plenty of grass, for the early rains (June--August 1803) had been abundant, did much to lighten the general distress[3]. In 1824-25 a failure of the early rains caused considerable and widespread scarcity. In Satara Indian millet prices rose to twelve pounds (*6 shers*) the rupee. In 1862 a scanty fall of rain in the early part of the season caused widespread scarcity. Grain prices were so high that grain compensation was granted to all government servants whose monthly salaries were less than Rs. 200[4].

An account of famines in the former Sangli State is given below[5]: -

"After 1801, from which year the former Sangli State dates its existence, no famine seems to have occurred till 1876-77. The scanty and badly distributed rainfall[6] of 1876, eight inches at Sangli compared with an average of twenty-two inches, led

[1]. Elphinstone's History, 507.

[2]. Colonel Etheridge's Report on Past Famines, 55, 58, 96, 98, 122.

[3]. Colonel Etheridge's Report on Past Famines 76, 80, 87, 97.

[4]. Colonel Etheridge's Report, 153.

[5] The account of famine is taken from Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency Vol XXIV, Kolhapur, 1886 PP. 334—35.

[6]. The rainfall in 1876 at Sangli was as follows: In June 4·32 inches, in July 4·30, in August 0·41, and in September 0·5, that is a total of 8·53 inches.

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to failure of crops and distress amounting to famine. In all the sub-divisions the *kharif* crops withered everywhere except in places near the Krishna where the river had flooded the country or where artificial irrigation was available. In the absence of autumnal rains no *rabi* crops could be grown except in the *bagayat* or garden lands. In the beginning much difficulty was felt in raising funds for opening relief works. The balance in the State treasury was small. Loans were raised from local bankers, but the funds were soon exhausted. Application was made to the then British Government for an advance, but to continue the relief works, before the sanction of the Government of India could be obtained, small sums were from time to time advanced from the Kolhapur treasury. The Government of India sanctioned a loan of Rs. 9 lakhs to the ex-Sangli State to meet the famine. In the beginning of July 1877 the first part of the loan was paid and no further difficulty was felt as regards funds.

Relief-Works.

The relief works consisted of making new roads and ponds, repairing old roads, clearing and repairing old wells and ponds. Owing to the want of a proper engineering staff the works were generally carried on a small-scale. The relief works cost Rs. 2,18,000, of which Rs. 1,16,620 were paid by the State and Rs. 1,01,380 from local funds.

Relief House.

In December 1876, a relief kitchen was opened at Sangli. It was started by private subscriptions and was aided by the state funds; in other places the relief houses cost Rs. 22,790 of which Rs. 18,870 were paid by the state and the remaining amount was raised by private subscriptions.

The following statement shows the average daily number of persons on relief works and the amount of cost:—

SANGLI FAMINE, 1876-77.

	Average Daily numbers			Average Daily numbers	
	On relief works	On gratuitous relief		On relief works	On gratuitous relief
(1)	(2)	(3)	(1)	(2)	(3)
1876			1877		
November	5,775	25	July	6,138	1,546
December	8,641	58	August	5,550	1,357
			September ..	3,245	1,842
			October	1,592	1,098
			November ..	391	469
1877					
January	8,006	99	December	..	126
February	7,169	108			
March	5,545	119	Total ..	70,095	10,356
April	6,170	185			
May	6,026	1,508	Average ..	5,392	739
June	5,847	1,816			
			Total Cost Rs.	18,000	18,870

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Compared with 1872 the 1881 census returns showed a decrease of 26,831 people, mostly due to the mortality during the 1876-77 famine.

Cost

The total cost of the famine was estimated at Rs. 2,43,970 of which Rs. 2,18,000 were spent on relief works, Rs. 18,870 on charitable relief, and Rs. 7,100 on special allowances to state servants. Adding to this Rs. 4,92,250 as loss by revenue the total amounted to Rs. 7,36,220. The loss by revenue included Rs. 1,72,320 as remissions on land revenue, Rs. 1,930 as remissions to farmers and contractors and Rs. 3,18,000 as the estimated loss in land revenue due to emigration.

The rainfall of 1877, though late and deficient at first, was in the end ample and the crops were generally good. In 1878 the season was favourable, but a plague of rats ate up almost every grain particularly in the eastern parts. Steps were taken to destroy the rats which were killed in thousands. But the destruction they caused led to much distress. In the next season in 1879 the plague disappeared. Since then the seasons have been generally favourable and the people have recovered from the famine."

The scanty and badly distributed rainfall of 1876, thirty-nine compared with an average of fifty inches, led to failure of crops and distress amounting to famine over about one-half of the district.[1] As rain held off, the early crops failed in the greater part of Tasgaon taluka. With high grain prices, millet at seventeen instead of thirty-five pounds per rupee and no demand for field work, the poorer classes fell into distress. The grain-dealers withheld their stores and no grain was offered for sale. As soon as the traders saw that government was ready to import grain they opened their shops and began to import on their own account. From December to March the pressure of distress was lighter as large supplies came into the district. In the hot months, with rising prices, the distress increased. The long period of dry weather in July and August forced grain prices still higher and caused much distress and suffering; but the plentiful and timely rainfall of September and October removed all cause of anxiety. By the close of November the demand for special Government help had ceased.

The following details show, month by month, the various phases through which distress passed and the measures taken to relieve it. In September 1876 rain held off so completely that people could not prepare their fields for the cold-weather crops. The early crops failed in the greater part of Khanapur and Tasgaon. In Khanapur and Tasgaon talukas, fodder was scarce and dear. Grain prices rose till about the end of the month. On 21st October showers fell at Tasgaon and Islampur.

[1] The estimate was in an area of 2,682 out of a total of 4,792 square miles, and in population 461,000 out of 1,062,350.

The early crops continued to wither, while throughout the district, except the Shalu, the cold-weather crops were either not sown, or where sown were dying. Cattle were starving for want of fodder and they were being sold at nominal prices or given away. In some places the crops were cut down for fodder. Grain import had not begun and grain-dealers withheld their stores. Prices rose so high that the Collector thought it necessary to order grain from Bombay. Arrangements were also made with a Satara merchant to import grain for sale at a moderate profit. At Tasgaon, grain was so difficult to buy that the Collector sent fifty cart-loads of jvari from Satara. To help the import of grain, the municipal dues in Satara and Tasgaon were suspended. Great commotion and clamour prevailed, especially among the Mahars, Mangs and Ramoshis in Tasgaon and people began to leave the district. Thefts were frequent, and in Tasgaon, bands of the poorer classes assembled and demanded work. In the Collector's opinion, had not the arrival of government grain forced the local dealers to bring forward their stores, their meetings would have turned into grain riots. To allay the disorder, local fund works, were opened, and, on the 17th Government placed a sum of Rs. 25,000 at the Collector's disposal for charitable, relief. In the south and east water was growing scarce. Grass and straw were very scarce, and in places even sugarcane was used for fodder. The grain ordered by the Collector arrived from Bombay through Chiplun. Its presence had a favourable effect and stimulated private imports of grain. To stimulate imports, treasury orders on Bombay and other large towns were given to traders at par, and it was proposed to remit tolls on grain carts. The rupee price of jvari rose from eighteen pounds at the beginning of the month to sixteen pounds towards the close, and that of bajri from twenty to seventeen pounds. There was much movement among the people, some leaving the district, others coming in large numbers from Jath, Miraj, Sangli and other neighbouring ex-states. Still as most land holders had reaped some small harvest and did not seek relief until their stock of grain was finished, the pressure on the works was not great, the daily number of labourers rising from 1,000 in the beginning of the month to 11,414 at the close. Of 4,371, the average daily number for the month, 4,056 were able bodied, expected to do a full day's work and superintended by public works officers, and 315 were aged or feeble, expected to do less than a full day's work and superintended by civil officers.[1] Early in the month meetings were held at Satara and Tasgaon, and relief committees were formed. On the 9th Rs. 2,000 out of the Gaikwad's grant of Rs. 10,000 were placed at the Collector's disposal to be spent on alms.

About the end of the month cholera made its appearance. December passed without rain and with no change in crop prospects. Grain import continued, and the rupee prices fell for jvari

[1] The original day's wages were for a man 2 as, for a woman 1½ as. and for a boy or girl one anna. About the middle of November a sliding scale was introduced providing that when prices rose over sixteen pounds the rupee, the money rate should vary with the price of grain and that a man should always receive the price of one pound of grain in addition to one anna.

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from eighteen pounds at the beginning of the month to 20½ pounds about the close, and for bajri from 17 to 19½ pounds. The scarcity of fodder was increasing and people were moving with their cattle to the Konkan. A mild form of cholera was prevalent. The number of the destitutes increased from 4,056 to 13,371 on public works and from 315 to 2,703 on civil works.

In January 1877 no rain fell. Grain import continued and the supply was sufficient. Jvari remained steady at twenty pounds the rupee, and bajri fell from 19½ to 20 pounds. The public health was good, except at Tasgaon, where, about the middle of the month, there was slight cholera. The numbers on relief increased, from 13,371 to 15,639 on public works and from 2,703 to 3,289 on civil works. The grain supply continued to be sufficient. The rupee fetched only 18½ pounds of bajri, 20 pounds of jvari. Cholera was prevalent and was increasing. The numbers on public works rose from 15,639 to 23,728 ; on civil works, in consequence of a reduction in pay in the civil works and of the transfer of workmen to public works, they fell from 3,289 to 178[1]. During the months twenty-four persons were on charitable relief. Early in March rain fell over most of the district. The grain supply continued to be sufficient, the rupee fetched 18½ to 19 pounds of jvari. Emigration to Bombay and the Konkan continued. Cholera was prevalent and increasing, the numbers on relief rose from 23,728 to 26,539 on public works, on civil works from 178 to 239 and from 24 to 197 on charitable relief. During April some good showers especially in the south and south-east, improved the scanty water-supply. The rupee price of both jvari and bajri rose from nineteen pounds at the beginning of the month to seventeen pounds about the close. The number of the destitute rose on public works from 26,539 to 32,122, on civil works from 239 to 514, and on charitable relief from 197 to 645. The mortality from cholera continued heavy. Late in May good rain fell in Walwa and showers in Tasgaon. Emigrants were slowly returning. In Khanapur, the Mahars and Ramoshis were in great want, and grain was distributed to them at their homes[2]. The supply of grain continued sufficient, but rupee prices rose, for jvari from seventeen to 15½ pounds and for bajri from seventeen to 16½ pounds. The scarcity of fodder was pressing hard, and the mortality among cattle was increasing. For the benefit of the infirm poor ten additional relief houses were established. Cholera continued prevalent and the mortality was heavy. The number of destitutes considerably increased, from 32,122 to 42,731 on public works, from 514 to 1,564 on civil works and from 645 to 1,833 on charitable relief. About the second week in June the eastern storms began. In

[1] The new rates were, for man the price of one pound of grain and half anna instead of 1 anna ; for a woman the price of one pound and 1/4 anna instead of half anna and for a boy or girl the price of half a pound of grain and quarter anna.

[2] In June the Collector put a stop to this mode of relief, as it was opposed to the spirit of government orders.

Tasgaon on two consecutive days about six inches of rain fell in torrents. At Walwa and other places the rains had steadily set in by the 22nd June. During the month an average of 10.81 inches fell. Emigrants were coming back, and about the middle of the month large numbers began leaving the relief works to return to their fields. The sowing of the early crops was begun and was rapidly progressing and in places the young crops had begun to show. The supply of grain continued good, but rupee prices for bajri and jvari rose from 15½ and fifteen pounds at the beginning of the month to fourteen pounds towards the close. The people largely supplemented their food with green vegetables, which had now become plentiful, and in Walwa mango, jack, and other fruits could be had in abundance. In Walwa, the young grass was high enough to afford grazing for cattle and was finding its way to the markets. The numbers of relief fell, on public works from 47,849 at the beginning of the month to 41,046 about the close, and on civil works from 2,560 to 1,400[1].

The mortality from cholera continued heavy. Crop prospects continued good, but in places more rain was badly wanted. Emigrants were still returning. Cart-rates from Tasgaon to Poona and back rose from ordinary rates of Rs. 16 to Rs. 35. and grain traffic in carts from Chiplun was stopped. This, joined to the break in the monsoon, raised grain prices for jvari from fourteen to 105/8 pounds and for bajri from 14½ to 11⅛ pounds the rupee; on the 22nd, at Tasgaon, grain was sold at seven pounds the rupee. These high prices caused less distress than might have been expected, as vegetables could be had in abundance and were freely eaten, but the want of salt caused much disease, especially dysentery. Green grass was coming to market and fodder was much cheaper. The mortality from cholera continued heavy. The numbers on relief fell, from 46,377 to 28,632 on public works, from 2,214 to 806 on civil works and from 3,768 to 3,051 on charitable relief. In August there was an average fall of 7.37 inches. Except *udid*, *mug* and *rala*, which in parts were much damaged by the scanty fall of the previous month, the crops were generally in good order but in the east required more rain. The supply of grain continued fair. Rupee prices both for bajri and jvari remained steady at eleven pounds. Cholera continued prevalent but was decreasing. The numbers on relief works fell considerably, from 28,632 to 19,517 on public works and from 806 to 524 on civil works and they rose from 3,051 to 5,345 on charitable relief. In September there was a good and heavy fall of rain, averaging 10.53 inches. Crops were good. Cart traffic to Chiplun, which had been stopped, was again opened. Rupee prices fell, for bajri from twelve pounds at the beginning of the month of nineteen pounds about the close, and for jvari from 11½ to

[1] For June the average daily number of the destitutes was, on public works 46,317,on civil works 2,214 and on charitable relief 3.768.

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17½ pounds. The condition of the people considerably improved. Cholera continued to decrease. The numbers on relief fell, on public works from 19,517 to 16,601 and on civil works from 524 to 494. On charitable relief they rose from 5,345 to 10,342. In October an average of 6.91 inches of rain fell. The sowing of the cold weather crops was in progress, but it was kept back by the heavy rain, which also in some places injured the ripe early crops. Grain prices fell, for jvari from nineteen pounds at the beginning of the month to twenty pounds about the close, and for bajri from 21½ to 24 pounds. The numbers on relief fell, on public works from 16,601 to 7,718, on civil works from 494 to 113, and on charitable relief from 10,342 to 7,113. Early in the month (6th) all civil agency works were closed. A mild type of cholera continued prevalent. In November there were a few showers in Walwa and Tasgaon. The harvesting of the early crops was nearly finished and *rabi* sowing was almost complete. During the month grain averaged 23¾ pounds of jvari and 29½ pounds of bajri per rupee. The numbers on public works fell from 2,755 about the beginning of the month to 469 at the end, when the works were closed. The numbers on charitable relief fell from 1,073 at the beginning of the month to 134 on the 24th. In the last week no one was relieved charitably. In December a few showers greatly benefited the cold-weather crops. Grain continued to grow cheaper, jvari falling to thirty-one and bajri to thirty-two pounds. No one took advantage of the Government offer to charitable relief.

Relief-Houses

Of twenty relief-houses or camps opened in the old Satara district between November 1876 and November 1877, the details of six such houses which were opened at the below mentioned places are given as under as these places are now included in the Sangli district. The buildings used for the relief houses were generally dharmshalas or rest houses, Chavdis or village offices, and temples. The relief house at Tasgaon was opened on the 16th of November 1876 and was closed on the 1st of November 1877 ; at a cost of Rs. 16,237 it relieved a monthly average of ninety-four men, sixty women, and eighty children. The relief-house at Islampur reservoir in Walwa was opened in February 1877 and closed on 30th of September ; at a cost of Rs. 1,591, it relieved 17,472 persons in all or a monthly average of 2,184. The relief-house at Peth in Walwa was opened on the 14th May 1877 and closed on the 30th of June ; at a total cost of Rs. 348, it relieved a monthly average of 214 men, 208 women, and 165 children. The relief-house at Kadegaon in Khanapur was opened on the 19th of May 1877 and closed on the 29th June : at a cost of Rs. 140 it relieved a monthly average of 157 men, 270 women, and 125 children. The relief-house at Vita in Khanapur was opened on the 20th of May 1877 and closed on the 30th of October ; at a cost of Rs. 3,360, it relieved a monthly average of 600 men, 800 women, and 840 children. The relief-house at Khanapur was opened on the 22nd of May 1877 and closed on the 1st of November ; at a

cost of Rs. 1,176, it relieved a monthly average of 190 men, 225 women, and 176 children. Besides, the cost on these relief-houses, Government spent about Rs. 23,860 in village charity.

Relief Staff.

To superintend relief works two mamlatdars were employed, one in Khanapur from the 17th of January 1877 and one in Tasgaon from the 31st of January 1877. Besides these mamlatdars, other relief officers and circle inspectors were also employed.

Grain.

Some municipalities sold grain at fixed rates to the poor, a mode of charity which was much appreciated. During the fair season grain came in large quantities, into Satara from Bombay by sea to Chiplun and from Chiplun to Karad by the Kumbharli pass road; during the rains it chiefly came by rail to Poona and from Poona in carts to Satara along the Poona-Belgaum road. In the east, grain also came by rail to Sholapur and from Sholapur in carts to Satara.

Emigration.

A great number of people from the Khanapur and Tasgaon sub-divisions left the district in the early days of distress. Some of them went north and north-east to Bombay, Berar and Khandesh, and others went south-west to the Konkan. The people who left the district, were those in charge of cattle, who usually had some means, and field labourers and small landholders, who had no stock of grain and no credit. Of these three classes, the labourers were the most numerous. The small landholders took with them their pair of bullocks and a cow or two, and left nothing behind but an empty house and a barricaded door. Some of them went to the Konkan and the rest to the Berar. Many, especially those who went to the Berar, are believed to have found opening and settled. Of the labouring classes, the better off left first and found work in distant parts; others went to the public works and remained there pretty steadily, others wandered to the Sahyadris whence later on they wandered back in much distress: and others, especially the women, hung about the villages living on next to nothing and dying in thousands on the first fall of rain.

Difficulties.

The chief difficulties in dealing with the famines were the obstinacy of some who would not leave their villages for the works and the vagrancy of others who persisted in wandering instead of working. These difficulties were met by careful village inspection and gentle pressure in the case of the stay-at-homes, and by watchful supervision by officers of all grades in the case of the vagrants.

Result.

In the eastern sub-divisions, according to the agricultural returns, the number of cattle fell from 9,94,272 in 1876-77 to 7,75,393 in 1877-78, that is a loss of 2,18,879. In 1877-78 the actual number of offences reported was 5,912 against 4,064 in 1876-77. Serious crime such as murder, dacoity and robbery seems to have been more prevalent and the number of thefts was considerably more than double what it was in 1876-77.

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation. FAMINES.

In 1878, the village area fell short of that in 1876 by about 18,400 acres. Of about Rs. 15,57,400, the realizable land revenue for the year 1876-77, Rs. 5,820 were remitted, and the rest was collected in subsequent years.

Scarcity or near-famine conditions have prevailed in the district in the recent past on several occasion. What is given below is an account of them, in brief.

1940-41, 1942-43, 1945-46.

Scarcity conditions prevailed in Tasgaon taluka in 1940-41, 1942-43 and 1945-46. Eighteen villages were affected in 1940-41, 44 in 1942-43 and 32 villages in 1945-46. In 1940-41, Rs. 28,669 were distributed as tagai for fodder. In 1942-43, when scarcity conditions existed in 44 villages, an area of about 276 sq. miles and a population of 87,804, were affected, due to the failure of rain, the following relief measures were undertaken:—

		Rs.
Gratuitous relief	..	30,192
Doles	..	9,100
Tagai for seed ..	..	14,695
Tagai for fodder	..	18,000
Tagai for bunding	..	18,063
Tagai for wells ..	..	41,400
Total	..	1,31,450

In 1945-46 scarcity conditions prevailed in 32 villages. an area of about 232 sq miles and a population of 68,259 were affected. As relief measures, Rs. 35,100 were granted as gratuitous relief and Rs. 3,993 were granted by way of doles. Besides, 51 tons of groundnut cakes and 612 bags of cotton-seed were distributed. The remission of land revenue was also granted during these scarcity periods.

1946-47

In 1946-47 eight villages in Walwa taluka were affected when the following relief measures were undertaken:—

		Rs.	a.	p.
Amount granted as dole	..	2,317	2	0
Grants for deepening wells ..	..	2,500	0	0
Distribution of grass in affected parts	..	12,482	0	0

No remission of land revenue was granted.

1952—54.

During 1952—1954 scarcity conditions prevailed in Jath, Miraj and Khanapur talukas. In Jath taluka. 30,000 people, living in an area of about 867 sq. miles, were affected. In Jath taluka, three P.W.D. works costing Rs. 2,40,217 were undertaken and completed up to a safe stage. The work of improvements to Karal Nagaj—Jath Bijapur Road miles 152/4 to 163/0 and special repairs to Jath station road relieved on an average

350 workers per day. While the work of improvements to Karad-Nagaj-Jath-Bijapur Road, mile Nos. 164 to 175/2, relieved on an average 476 workers per day. Eleven soil conservation works undertaken at the cost of Rs. 4,22,862 relieved 31,020 people. Grass to the extent of 661 bales weighing 95,795 lbs. and 29,100 sheaves received from Kolhapur on Government account were sold at low rates. Skim milk powder to the tune of 7,425 lbs. was distributed through 11 centres. Sixty-eight bags of UNICEF rice were distributed in the famine stricken area. The following amounts were suspended and remitted:—

	Suspensions Rs.	Remission
Land Revenue	3,46,936	Nil
P. H. S.	80,821	Nil
Tagai	1,09,215	Nil

The public body viz. the District Famine Relief Committee also undertook the following relief measures:—

One Fibre Industrial School was opened at Umarani village, with a view to provide work to backward class people. A grant of Rs. 500 was given by the then District Development Board. The school was run for 2½ months and provided work for 50 persons per week. The total expenses of the scheme were Rs. 1,812-8-3. One spinning centre was conducted for 3 months at Jath for the relief of middle class people, especially ladies providing work for 40 ladies. The total expenses on the scheme were Rs. 594-15-0. A canteen at the bunding centre at Billur village was started to supply meals to the workers. A meal consisting of 3 loaves and curry was charged Re. 0-2-6. The total expenses were Rs. 1,674-6-0. Another canteen at Sankh bunding centre was started. To every worker two meals per day were provided at a cost of Re. 0-5-0. The total expenses on this scheme were Rs. 307-4-0.

Two truck loads and 50,000 sheaves of hay, 1,500 clothes and 5,000 sheaves of *kadbi* were distributed free.

In Miraj toluka failure of rain caused scarcity conditions in an area of 175 sq. miles affecting 17,556 people. The P. W. D. works of improvement to Karad-Nagaj-Jath-Bijapur Road from miles 14/0 to 25/0 costing Rs. 46,361 and which relieved 167 workers per day was completed up to a safe stage. The special repairs on mile No. 14/0 to 25/0 which cost Rs. 49,519 and relieved 235 persons per day was also completed up to a safe stage. Three soil conservation works of which only earth work was completed costing Rs. 33,937 relieved 14,541 workers. A minor irrigation work of constructing a bandhara at Vajrachounda costing Rs. 3,98,508 relieved 468 workers. Three hundred and sixty-three bales of grass received from Government were sold at low rates; 3,616 lbs. of skim milk powder were distributed

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation. FAMINES. 1952—54.

through 17 centres; 20 bags of UNICEF rice was distributed in Kavathemahankal area and 12 bags of UNICEF rice was distributed at Vajrachounde dam. The following amounts were suspended:—

		Rs.
(1) Land revenue	..	30,690
(2) Tagai	..	14,149

One canteen to provide meals to the workers on the dam was started on 10th May 1953 and was closed on 1-8-1953. The workers were provided with two meals, each meal containing 3 loaves and curry, at Re. 0-5-0. Per day 22,397 workers took advantage of the canteen. A prominent feature of this canteen was that the children were fed free. Some ayurvedic medicines were also made available to the workers. The canteen was run by the District Famine Relief Committee.

The scarcity conditions which existed in an area of 337 sq. miles in Khanapur taluka affected 28,300 people. Three P.W.D. works, mostly special repairs to roads, were undertaken costing Rs. 858. About 227 workers were relieved. The work on the Vita-Lengara road costing Rs. 3,355 relieved 200 workers. Soil conservation works, only of earth, at Atpadi, Madgule, Dighanchi, Karagani, Ghanand relieved 2,020 people: Rs. 33,365 were spent on them. Grass weighing 37,515 lbs. and paddy straw of 780 bales received on government account were sold at low rates. Skim milk powder of 1,800 lbs. was distributed through 5 centres; 10 bags of UNICEF rice was also distributed. In Atpadi area 1,000 sheaves of *kadbi* were distributed free of cost. The following amounts were suspended and remitted:—

		Suspension Rs.	a.	p.	Remission water rate Rs.	a.	p.
(1) Land revenue	..	36,481	13	8	1,373	12	3
(2) Tagai ..	.. ..	32,512	15	9			
(3) P. H. S.	.. ..	63,674	0	6			
(4) Irrigation	.. ..	2,019	6	0			

1957-58. During the year 1957-58, scarcity conditions prevailed in Jath taluka. About 39,879 people living in an area of 980 sq. miles were affected. As a relief work four D.L.B. road works costing Rs 30,978 were undertaken and were nearly completed. It gave relief to 284 people for about three months. Eight bunding works costing Rs. 7,232 gave relief to 850 workers.

1958-59. When in 1958-59, 49,177 people from Jath taluka were affected by the scarcity conditions, 36 bunding works were undertaken giving relief to 3,799 people; in addition four road works costing Rs. 31,171 gave relief to 273 people. In Walwa taluka 13 road works and 3 irrigation works costing Rs. 9,14,075 were undertaken giving relief to 2,00,253 persons. In Tasgaon taluka five

bunding works costing Rs. 62,770 and road works costing Rs. 7,965 gave relief to 4,922 workers. In Miraj taluka two road works costing Rs. 2,223 gave relief to 815 workers.

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FAMINES.

The above account shows that the areas most susceptible to the conditions of scarcity in the district are the villages in Jath taluka and the whole of Atpadi area which form the border of Sholapur and Bijapur districts. The average rainfall throughout the district is neither heavy nor evenly distributed. In the Jath area rainfall is particularly scanty. The economic condition of the people in this tract is rather precarious. Though since the formation of the district in 1949 scarcity was not declared in Jath taluka or in any other taluka in the district, whenever scarcity conditions prevailed measures to give relief to the affected villages have been taken. Very often provisional measures such as prompt distribution of tagai, bunding works etc. against the recurring scarcity conditions are also undertaken. Besides, steps have also been taken to dig up new wells for drinking water-supply, to deepen and to desilt the existing wells and to install mobile pumping sets at cheaper rates through the agencies of the co-operative societies for irrigating the *rabi* crops and for growing fodder crops during summer.

FLOODS.

The low lying villages on the banks of the rivers, Krishna, Warna and Yerala get inundated in times of floods. The river Krishna, the biggest of the three, flows through Walwa, Tasgaon and Miraj talukas. Every year about 32 villages from these three talukas are generally affected by the floods of Krishna river. Warna river has its origin in Shirala Mahal and its major portion forms the boundary between Kolhapur district on the one hand and Shirala Mahal and Walwa taluka on the other. The floods of Warna river every year cause damage to four villages (Aitawad Khurd, Kanegaon, Koregaon, Shigaon) from Walwa taluka and three villages (Sawalwadi, Dudhgaon, Samdoli) from Miraj taluka. The river Yerala flows through Khanapur and Tasgaon talukas and causes damage in times of floods to Vasagade and Brahmanal villages from Tasgaon taluka. The latter two rivers join the Krishna in Sangli district.

The details of floods prior to 1-8-1949 are not available. The known highest floods were, however, of the year 1914. The three rivers had heavy floods in 1950, 1953, 1955, 1958 and 1961. In 1953 the floods of the river Warna came unexpectedly and the flood waters encircled Shigaon, Koregaon and Kanegaon villages in Walwa taluka. However, there was no loss of human life and only five cattle were lost. About 3/4th of the *gaothan* area of the village Koregaon was submerged under flood-water and 2/3rd houses of the village either collapsed or were severely damaged. Volunteers and the police force helped the villagers.

Due to heavy rains in the district in 1958-59, 68 houses and 36 huts collapsed and 239 houses in 28 villages on the banks of

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation. FLOODS.

the rivers Krishna and Warna were damaged. About 2,119 people were affected by the floods. The floods caused damage to the extent of Rs. 32,165. Foodgrains, clothes, etc. were distributed to the sufferers. The government also granted a sum of Rs. 1,100 to the flood affected people. In addition, one temple at Pundi Walwa collapsed causing damage to the extent of Rs. 1,000, one irrigation well at Tupari was filled with silt (damage worth Rs. 500) and about 15 acres of land at Nagrale was washed away causing damage to the extent of Rs. 1,970.

In the 1961 flood, when the water level was about 3 to 4 feet below that of 1914, 54 villages were affected, 684 houses were either damaged or collapsed and damage to crops like sugarcane, jowar, groundnut, etc. was estimated at Rs. 14,62,300. Four temples, one mosque, one gymnasium (*takim*), one school building and a river ghat were also damaged. The damage was estimated to the extent of Rs. 7,875. Five cables of the telephone exchange office, Sangli worth Rs. 2,000, were also damaged. There was no loss of life. Flood-affected persons were evacuated and given shelter in public buildings. The Flood Relief Committee which was constituted under the chairmanship of the Collector collected an amount of Rs. 9,365 by way of local contribution for granting relief to the flood-affected people. The details of the relief granted are as follows: —

(1) Gratuitous relief (cash) from Government funds.	Rs. 11,420.
(2) G. C. I. sheets on payment	1,175 (sheets).
(3) Cement on payment	20 tons.
(4 Cash relief from the flood relief funds ..	Rs. 200.

A flood co-ordination board of some officials and non-officials has been set up for the district to take measures against the recurring floods.

CHAPTER 5—INDUSTRIES

IN THE FIRST DECADE OF THE PRESENT CENTURY, Sangli district was very backward in the industrial field. A few crafts, such as, preparation of gold and silver ornaments, copper and brass smithy, preparation of iron tools, carpentry, pottery and blanket weaving were existent. Moreover, these crafts were concentrated near the cities like Sangli and Miraj.

The history of industrialisation of the district dates back to 1910, when the Kirloskar Brothers factory was established at Kundal Road which later came to be known as Kirloskarwadi. This proved a landmark and a turning point in the history of the industrialisation of the district. Since then, the pace of industrialisation was rapid. The Administration Report of Sangli State records, in all, 15 industries in the State in the year 1915, which included ginning and pressing, oil and engineering industries. Varied types of industries, large and small as well as cottage industries, have come up, scattered all over the district, which contributed to the overall prosperity of the district.

According to the Area Survey Report prepared by the Economic Investigation Section of Small Scale Industries Service Institute, Government of India, Sangli district is rich in sugarcane, groundnut and tobacco. Among the minerals, lime-stone is the principal resource available in the district. Though iron ore and bauxite are also reported to be available, their volume and quality need further investigation. The district has a nucleus of few light engineering and sugar industries; the vivid examples of which are Kirloskarwadi Engineering Works and co-operative sugar factory at Sangli. The textile mills established near Sangli also speak about the early industrial adventures and entrepreneurship of the district. The liberal policy of the princely states in the Sangli district helped the initial industrialisation of the district.

In spite of this early break towards industrialisation, Sangli district lagged behind during the forties and fifties of the century but industrial activity is again increasing as a result of various industrial policies of the State. Co-operation has played no mean a part in the establishment of the resource based industry like sugar industry in the district.

CHAPTER 5.

Industries.

INTRODUCTION.

Thus textile, engineering and sugar are the main industries of the district with a complement of various other industries such as, oil pressing, ginning, chemical industry, etc.

Among the new industries recommended for development are hand tools, pipe fittings, paints and varnishes, machine tools, geometry instruments leather suit-cases, bags, purses and other leather articles.

The tempo of industrialisation of the district is further accelerated by the availability of electricity in abundance from the Koyna Hydro Electric Project at cheap rate. The growth of industries is further ensured with the establishment of the Sangli Industrial Estate Co-operative Society.

The following table shows the statistics of persons engaged in different kinds of industries in the district in 1961:—

TABLE No. 1

PERSONS ENGAGED IN DIFFERENT INDUSTRIES IN SANGLI DISTRICT 1961

(1)	Total (2)	Males (3)	Females (4)
1. Agriculture, live-stock, forestry, fishing and hunting.	7,737	7,033	704
2. Mining and quarrying	558	500	58
3. Food stuffs	2,466	2,305	161
4. Beverages	82	81	1
5. Tobacco products	2,607	281	2,326
6 Textile-cotton	6,966	5,509	1,457
7 Textile-Jute	137	68	69
8 Textile-Wool	743	275	468
9. Textile-Silk	3	2	1
10 Textile-Miscellaneous	4,843	4,011	832
11. Wood and wooden products .. .	11,708	7,719	3,989
12 Paper and paper products .. — ..	13	7	6
13. Printing and publishing	241	241	..
14. Leather and leather products	2,186	2,131	55
15. Rubber, petroleum and coal products ..	39	37	2
16. Chemicals and chemical products	245	230	15
17. Non-metallic mineral products other than petroleum and coal.	2,462	1,645	817
18. Basic metals and their products except machinery and transport equipment.	2,185	2,080	105

TABLE No. 1—*contd.*

(1)	Total (2)	Males (3)	Females (4)
19. Machinery (all kinds other than transport and electrical equipment).	1,803	1,801	2
20. Transport equipment	915	912	3
21. Miscellaneous manufacturing industries ..	11,566	1,486	80
22. Construction	4,472	4,047	452
23. Electricity and Gas	449	449	..
24. Water-supply and sanitary services ..	545	375	170
25. Wholesale trade	1,214	1,149	65
26. Retail trade	13,020	11,545	1,475
27. Trade and commerce	1,232	1,074	158
28. Transport	5,193	5,115	78
29. Storage	74	64	10
30. Communications	586	580	6
31. Services (Public, Educational and Scientific, Medical, Health, Religion).	30,238	25,309	4,929
32. Activities unspecified and not adequately described.	33	15	18
Total	106,561	88,076	18,485

The chapter is divided into three sections. The first section deals with large and small industries registered under the Factories Act. Cottage and village industries are described in the second section. The third section gives an account of the trade union movement and labour organisation in the district.

I—Large and Small Industries

LARGE AND SMALL INDUSTRIES.
Oil Industry.

Groundnut is an important commercial crop grown extensively in the district. The area under groundnut cultivation has increased progressively from 62,281.985 hectares (1,53,902 acres) in 1951 to 83,203.441 hectares (2,05,600 acres) in 1960. The production of groundnut during 1960-61 amounted to 52,225.448 metric tons (51,403 tons). Of this, it is estimated that only about 25 per cent is utilised locally by 13 oil-mills in the district for oil extraction and the rest is exported after decortication. A proposal has been put forward by growers of groundnuts in the district to start new co-operative oil-mills located at various resource centres in order to utilise locally the large quantities of groundnuts which are at present exported to neighbouring districts. Of the 13 units, 7 units are engaged in oil extraction employing about 175 persons and the

remaining 6 units are engaged in groundnut decortication. All the mills are situated at Sangli except three, one each at Miraj, Islampur and Tasgaon.

Raw materials.—Groundnut is the main raw material. Safflower and Sesamum are the other oil-seeds which are also used for extraction of edible oil. These are grown in the surrounding area and are purchased in the markets at Sangli, Miraj, Jaisingpur, etc. The oil-seeds are stocked by the millowners at the harvest season when their prices are usually low.

Tools and equipment.—Machines and appliances used are steam engines, boilers, big and small expellers, rotary machines, filter presses, decorticators and electrolyser for producing hydrogen gas. An oil expeller costs about Rs. 15,000, an electric motor Rs. 1,000, filter processing machine about Rs. 2,000, boiler about Rs. 3,000 and refinery tank about Rs. 6,000.

Groundnut husk, coal and firewood are used as fuel. On an average, one expeller consumes about 50 bags of husk in a day in the busy season. Electricity is very rarely used. Six mills consumed fuel power worth Rs. 21,100 in 1962.

Production.—Most of the mills use groundnuts for expelling although some produce oil from safflower, *til*, *karanji*, etc. The production of the four mills was valued at Rs. 21,39,472 in 1962-63. Oilcake is obtained as the by-product. It is used as a fertiliser and also for feeding the cattle. The oilcake yield depends on the quality of the seeds and the process of production.

Marketing.—Oil is sold locally and also sent to Bombay, Poona and Karnatak. Safflower and sesamum oil is expelled on a small scale and is used exclusively for local purposes. The marketing of the oilcake is also carried on a large scale in the Sangli market.

Employment.—The industry is seasonal, and so the employment also. The skilled worker gets about Rs. 3 per day and the unskilled about Rs. 2. Women are also employed. A female labourer is paid about Rs. 1.50 per day.

Finance.—Generally, the large mill owners purchase and stock raw materials in the harvest season. The owners of small plants do not enjoy this advantage due to the shortage of funds. The availability of cheap credit in the busy season is the main requirement of small entrepreneurs in this industry.

Cotton Textile.

There are seventeen cotton textile factories, at present, in Sangli district, located mainly at Sangli, Miraj and Madhavnagar. Some of them are large-scale units, employing more than a thousand workers, while some are smaller having not more than ten spindles. The availability of electricity and a wide local market have accelerated the growth of this industry in the district.

Capital.—The total investment of capital up to 1960-61 was Rs. 84.05 lakhs including working capital amounting to Rs. 34.45 lakhs.

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LARGE AND SMALL INDUSTRIES.

Cotton Textile.

Employment.—The number of workers employed was 2,091 in 1961. The average number of persons employed was 1,943. Besides, a number of persons were employed as jobbers, officers and clerks. The labour force was from the adjoining areas and was directly employed by factories. The wages paid amounted to Rs. 30.56 lakhs of which Rs. 2.40 lakhs were paid as salary and remuneration to the office staff. The average daily earning amounts to Rs. 5 and Rs. 2½, for skilled and unskilled workers, respectively. However, the wage rates for skilled workers varied in different factories. The wage rate for unskilled workers was more or less the same in all the fields. Generally, a skilled worker earns Rs. 175 per month. Workers were paid bonus also.

Raw materials.—The raw materials used are cotton of short, medium and long staple, a part of which is imported from foreign countries. In weaving sections, bleaching and sizing materials are required besides cloth, hooks, gunny bags, hemp twine, craft paper and paper for labels, etc., The total value of raw materials consumed by the industry in the year 1961-62 was of the order of Rs. 88.30 lakhs. Cotton and other fibres like art silk accounted for Rs. 70.27 lakhs which was about 80 per cent of the total expenditure. Cotton yarn accounted for 15 per cent and the remaining five per cent was for miscellaneous items such as colours, packing materials and mill stores.

Products.—The principal products of the industry are yarn and cloth. Some of the factories produce only yarn which is sold to other firms. The production of yarn, in the year 1961-62, amounted to Rs. 1.25 crores and that of cloth to Rs. 54.20 lakhs. The total production of cloth was 49.14 lakh yards.

Fuel.—Coal, oil, firewood and electricity are used for power and fuel. Their total value amounted to Rs. 6.64 lakhs in 1961-62, of which 75 per cent accounted for expenditure on electricity, 15 per cent for coal and the remaining 10 per cent for oil and firewood. Nearness to the Koyna Hydro Electric Project facilitated the quick availability of electricity and the process of gradual replacement of coal and firewood by electricity.

Market.—The product of the industry in the district has a wide demand and has captured important markets in Maharashtra. It is sent to Bombay, Sholapur, Nasik, Ichalkaranji, Satara, Kolhapur and Belgaum.

Chemical Industry.

There are two chemical firms situated at Miraj. One of them undertakes the manufacture of pharmaceuticals and extrusion of polyethylene bags and lay flat tubes. It was established in 1949 and registered in the year 1960. The other firm was established in 1930. This firm also undertakes production of chemicals.

Capital.—The value of fixed capital in both the enterprises is Rs. 29,05,000. One of the firms has its own building and the other is situated in rented premises. The value of the building is estimated at Rs. 1,25,500. The working capital of both the firms amounted to Rs. 1,21,275.

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Chemical Industry.

Labour.—The total number of persons employed in both the firms is 102 of whom 19 are in the office establishment. Both skilled and unskilled workers are employed by the industry. The rate of wage paid to a skilled worker varies from Rs. 3 to Rs. 4 per day, while unskilled workers are paid much less than that.

Raw materials.—The raw materials used by these firms are chemicals, drugs, polyethylene, sugar, vitamins, etc. The total expenditure for the purchase of raw materials amounts to Rs. 2,50,000 approximately. A part of the raw materials required are imported from foreign countries. The rest is purchased in the indigenous markets. The industry also requires packing materials, glass bottles, card-boards and boxes.

Fuel.—The firms use petrol, kerosene, burshane gas and coal as fuel. Fuel constitutes the major item of expenditure.

Products. Both the firms produce different kinds of drugs and medicines.

The products are sold throughout the country. However, a good part of the products is consumed in Maharashtra.

Engineering Work

There are eleven engineering firms in Sangli district. They are centred around Sangli and Miraj towns providing employment to a large number of people. Some of these factories were established as far back as 1901. Others were established in the period between 1935 and 1964.

Capital. The total capital investment in all these factories at the time of collection of information was about Rs. 30,00,000 and the working capital was approximately Rs. 10,00,000.

Employment.—These firms provide employment to 530 persons of whom 94 are on the office establishment. Most of the labour, both skilled and unskilled, is from the neighbouring area. The amount paid as wages and salaries was Rs. 6,31,212 in 1963-64 Skilled workers are paid higher wages, than the unskilled workers.

Fuel. -For fuel and power, coal, coke, firewood, electricity, kerosene, petrol, crude oil and mobiloil are used. The consumption of electricity has been gradually on the increase and there is a marked tendency to use coal instead of firewood. The expenditure on fuel consumed by all the factories in 1963-64 amounted to Rs. 1,91,180, 25 per cent being spent on electricity.

Raw materials.—The principal raw materials used by the industry are iron and steel, brass, pig iron, cement, sand, mould and timber. This accounts for 70 per cent of the total expenditure on raw materials, the important among them being iron, steel and pig iron. Next in importance are packing materials such as hessian, craft paper, wooden cases, straw boards and other stores which account for 27 per cent. The other raw material used includes items like paints and varnishes, oxygen, borax, etc.

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Engineering work

The item-wise expenditure on raw materials by these firms in 1963-64 is given below: —

1. Iron and steel .. ... Rs. 6,69,198
2. Cement ... ... Rs. 1,98,467
3. Miscellaneous ... ... Rs. 1,44,538

Products.—The factories produce pumps, gates, septic tanks, doors or door frames, reinforced concrete spun pipes, oil engines (6 H.P.), base plates, gear casting, motor body covers, agricultural implements, like ploughs, centrifugal pumps, thrashers and cots, chairs, overhead line materials, bolts, studs, shafts, keys, lathe machines, etc. The total production of all these articles in 1963-64 was valued at Rs. 44,86,816.

Kirloskar Engineering Works.

The Kirloskar Engineering Works which is by far the most important manufacturing concern in the district manufactures machine tools and iron and steel agricultural implements. Besides, it produces power looms and dobbies, crude oil engines and many other iron and steel articles.

This factory established by the late Shri Laxmanrao Kirloskar in 1910 now works as Kirloskar Brothers Limited. The achievements at Kirloskarwadi in terms of major business expansion and technical advancement, are just two vital contributions to Indian enterprise. For Kirloskarwadi is the foremost example of an industrial centre developed in the countryside, an outstanding example of how an industry can revitalise village economy and village life.

Kirloskarwadi is said to be a model township inhabiting about 2,000 people. It covers an area of 78.509 hectares (194 acres) with broad, paved and tree lined avenue running through the centre, separating the factory area from the employees' quarters. It has its own residential quarters for its employees, schools, hospital, gymnasium, well-laid system of roads, and has its own arrangement for power and electric lighting.

The company's balance sheet as on 31st July 1962 is given below: —

KIRLOSKAR BROTHERS LIMITED, KIRLOSKARWADI, DISTRICT SANGLI

Balance sheet as on 31st July 1962.

Liabilities	Rs.	Assets	Rs.
1. Share Capital ..	58,19,789	1. Fixed Assets ..	1,09,09,785
2. Reserves	1,08,67,103	2. Investments ..	23,13,293
3. Secured Loans ..	70,24,455	3. Current Assets, Loans and Advances.	2,30,40,986
4. Unsecured Loans ..	23,70,351		
5. Current Liabilities and provision.	1,01,82,355		
Total ..	3,62,64,062	Total ..	3,62,64,062

CHAPTER 5. Industries. LARGE AND SMALL INDUSTRIES. Kirloskar Engineering Works.

Products.—The factory produces various steel products which can be classified under three heads, *i.e.*, (1) agricultural implements, (2) pumps and (3) steel furniture.

The following agricultural implements are produced: ploughs, disc harrows, chaff cutters, scrapers or levellers, hand cultivators, maize shellers, corn winnowers, wheel hoes, *mots* and *mot* wheels, *rahats* (hand and bullock driven), sugarcane crushers (bullock or power driven) and groundnut decorticators (hand and power driven).

The second category, *i.e.*, pumps, includes the following products: shallow-well hand pumps, horizontal double-acting force pumps, deep-well hand and power reciprocating pumps for ordinary and bore wells, sprayers—single, double and triple barrel, centrifugal pumps, pumping sets directly coupled for electric drive and fast valves.

In steel furniture, they produce chairs, teapoys, shelves, cradles, sofa sets, tables, bed lockers, spring bed steads, camp cots, hospital furniture, operation tables, reversible school desks, ornamental cast iron railings, etc.

Besides, power looms, dobbies and crud oil engines are also produced.

Raw materials.—For the year ending July 1962, the total purchases made were of the order of Rs. 2,44,76,213. The factory spent a sum of Rs. 5,17,084 on power and fuel during the same period.

Employment.—In 1910, when the factory went into production the number of workers engaged was only 50. In 1960, it rose to 1,700. The total expenditure incurred on wages, salaries and bonus was of the order of Rs. 39,01,717 for the year ending July 1962. A contribution of Rs. 1,48,390 to provident fund and employees' state insurance was made.

The factory has its own well-equipped dispensary for the welfare of the employees. The management spent Rs. 1,13,110 on welfare facilities during the year ending July 1962. All kinds of recreational facilities are provided to the workers. The colony has its own sports club gymnasium which is claimed to be one of the best in the Deccan. There is also a Mahila-Mandal, a branch of All-India Women's Conference. Besides, the colony has a library, a bank, a post and telegraph office, co-operative societies, etc. The company has a special Town Maintenance Department to look after the colony's buildings and amenities. Special transport facilities have been arranged for those workers coming from the surrounding villages.

Market.—The total amount of goods produced in this factory was worth Rs. 3,87,87,391 during the year ending July 1962, including the amount of discounts given to sole distributors and others. The Kirloskar products find market not only in India, but also in some African, Asian and Latin American countries.

Sugar manufacturing is one of the major industries in Sangli district. There is a great scope for the expansion of this industry, if raw materials and capital are made available. Formerly, sugarcane was mainly used for the manufacture of *gul* in the district. In 1948, an attempt was made to establish a sugar factory near Sangli. In 1956, "The Shetkari Sahakari Sakhar Karkhana Ltd." was established at Sangli on a co-operative basis. The factory which employs about 800 persons works for about 5 to 6 months in a year.

Raw materials.—The main raw material required is sugarcane which is grown in about 8,903.092 hectares (22,000 acres) of land in the neighbouring areas. The other requirements are lime, sulphur, phosphate, caustic soda, gunny bags, washing soda, etc. The fuel consists of furnace oil, wood and electricity. The value of the raw materials and fuels excluding sugarcane was Rs. 5,35,482 in the year 1962-63. The chemicals are purchased from Bombay.

Tools and equipment.—The factory had an investment of Rs. 1,12,83,125 in plant and machinery, and of Rs. 18,03,948 in buildings and lands. Tools and equipments used are varied and range from a spanner to a crushing mill consisting of rollers, vacuum-pans, boilers, centrifugal pumps, etc. The production capacity of the plant is 1,270 Metric Tons (1,250 tons) of sugarcane per day.

Process.—Sugarcane is cleaned from trash and mud before being loaded in a cane carrier which takes it to the mills for crushing. It is cut into pieces by two sets of knives and is prepared for milling. These preparatory devices are very necessary before cane is crushed. The cane is crushed in a mill consisting of three rollers. To ensure complete extraction of juice, hot water is macerated before 5th mill. The bagasse goes to boiler as fuel where steam is generated for processing purposes.

The extracted raw juice after being weighed in automatic scales is passed through one set of juice heater where it is heated from 70°C. to 80°C. It is then taken to sulphitation tanks where milk of lime and So_2 gas are added. The flow of lime and So_2 gas is adjusted according to the rate of flow of incoming juice. The treated juice is then passed from the juice sulphitation tank to the second set of juice heater where it is heated up to 1000°C. Then it is again led to a big vessel called Dorr, consisting of five chambers. Here sulphited juice is allowed to settle.

Decanted juice or clear juice is sent to one quadruple set consisting of four bodies, where clear juice is boiled under vacuum and then concentrated. The muddy juice is passed through Oliver Filter with a rotatory drum under vacuum. Due to its vacuum, it catches mud, where it is washed by a spray of hot water in order to ensure less loss of sugar in mud. Mud with very low sugar content escapes from the drum where there is no vacuum. The heavy and light filtered juice is again led to the weighed

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juice reservoir tank. The mud is thrown outside by means of a screw conveyor. This mud is weighed for chemical control and is used as a fertiliser.

The syrup (thick juice) is again sulphited in a syrup sulphitation tank. Three varieties of massecuite are boiled in pans which are under vacuum from syrup and molasses. 'A' massecuite is mainly boiled on syrup only. 'B' massecuite is boiled on the molasses which are obtained from 'A' massecuite. 'C' massecuite is boiled on the molasses of 'B' massecuite. From pans, massecuites are discharged into crystallizers from where it is passed to centrifugals for centrifuging. Here sugar crystals are separated from the mother liquor or molasses which has sugar contents left in it. Molasses are then boiled twice to extract the remaining sugar content. The sugar obtained in the centrifugals is washed and then dried in a different set of centrifugals by superheated steam. Marketable sugar which is then passed into a sugar grader, through an elevator, where different varieties of sugar are separated according to the size of crystals.

Different varieties of sugar crystals are bagged and marked like 29D, 29E, etc. The total production in the year 1962-63 was 1,52,400 Metric tons (1,50,000 tons) of sugarcane in the district. On an average, one quintal sugar is obtained from one ton of sugarcane.

Marketing.—The sugar produced in the district is sold mainly in Maharashtra. The price of sugar depends upon the variety of sugar produced. Good quality sugar is also exported to foreign countries through the State Trading Corporation.

Employment.—The sugar industry is a seasonal industry providing employment for about 5 to 6 months in a year. There are also many permanent workers most of whom are on the technical or clerical staff. In 1962-63, the factory employed 753 skilled persons. Unskilled and semi-skilled temporary workers numbered 271. Their total wage bill in 1962-63 was Rs. 5,09,180. The wages of temporary men amounted to Rs. 4,38,077 in 1962-63. A skilled worker is paid Rs. 6.74 per day whereas an unskilled worker gets Rs. 3.75 a day. A semi-skilled worker receives Rs. 4.10 a day. Housing is provided to the permanent employees.

Finance and co-operation.—The factory has been established on a co-operative basis and the farmers have contributed to the majority of its shares. The Government has also extended credit facility to the industry through various agencies. The productive capital of the factory, in 1960, was Rs. 3,02,40,022. The value of the buildings and lands owned by the factory was Rs. 18,03,948 and the working capital was Rs. 1,60,84,783.

The sugar industry represents an agro-industrial venture. The instance of integration of industry and agriculture shows what lasting benefits can be achieved when industrial managements choose to bring their superior techniques to the farms. This

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region even today can boast of cane yields comparable to those of the world's best areas. There is at present a proposal to start two more co-operative sugar factories one each at Shirala mahal and Walwa. The sugarcane grown in the neighbouring areas feeds the present factory.

Printing and Book-binding.

There are two firms in the district, one at Miraj and the other at Sangli established in 1923 and 1930, respectively, doing printing and allied work.

Capital.—The total investment in them in 1962 was Rs. 16,70,000, including Rs. 81,000 as working capital.

Raw materials.—Raw materials used are paper, printing ink, different types of stationery and binding materials. Almost all of these have to be brought either from Poona or from Bombay The value of the raw materials purchased in the year 1962 amounted to Rs. 79,500.

The mechanical equipment consists of printing machines, cutting and stitching machines, treadles, perforating and binding machines and cylinder machines.

Fuel.—They consumed electricity worth Rs. 1,700 in 1962.

Employment.—The total number of persons employed in both these firms was 22 and the total wage bill amounted to Rs. 42,500 in 1962. The figure includes wages which were given to the workers employed on a contract basis. The total number of workers engaged in printing and allied works was 239 in the year 1961.

Products.—One of the firms produced printed forms, booklets, labels, posters, etc., the value of which was Rs. 30,000 during 1962. Another firm did job work The total value of orders placed was Rs. 1,25,000 in 1962. These firms receive orders from Sangli, Kolhapur and adjoining areas

Printing Press.

Besides, there is one more press where a Marathi daily, "*Navasandesh*" is printed. The total investment in the press was Rs. 60,000 out of which Rs. 15,000 represented the working capital. The total number of persons employed was 35 of whom 15 were skilled and the rest unskilled. In 1962, the wages paid came to Rs. 60,000. It used newsprint worth Rs. 32,400 in 1962. The newspaper had a circulation of 6,000 and was priced at 7 paise. Its circulation is mainly in the districts of Sangli, Kolhapur and Satara.

Bidi-making and tobacco processing.

In 1951, there were 15 bidi *karkhanas* at Sangli and 5 at Miraj. About 5,000 people were engaged in this industry. It is estimated that at present there are about 20 establishments engaged in bidi making and tobacco processing in Sangli and 7 in Miraj. There were 2,545 persons engaged in this profession in 1961. Sangli and Miraj are the main centres of the industry though there are some small establishments scattered at taluka places in the district.

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Bidi-making and tobacco processing.

Raw materials.—The raw materials consist of tobacco, *pan* (dry leaves), thread and packing paper. In addition to what is grown in the district, tobacco is imported from Belgaum, Nipani, Sadalga and Jaisingpur. Dry leaves are obtained from Chanda, Raipur and Gondia. Thread and paper are purchased in the local market or at Bombay. For packing, *khala* is prepared from *maida* which is also purchased from Sangli and Miraj markets.

Tools and equipment.—The tools required are a pair of scissors and furnace with metal trays for heating. The tobacco processing and snuff making are carried with the help of stone grinder (*Jate*), sieve, baskets and winnowing fans. Most of the work is done by hand processes.

Production.—The process of bidi making is a very simple one. Leaves are soaked in water for one night to make them soft. Then they are cut to the desired size. The required quantity of tobacco is put into the leaf, which is then wrapped with both the hands and thread is wound on it.

For snuff making, liquid containing water, *gul*, lime and *sonakhar* is sprinkled over tobacco. This mixture is kept in a basket till it gets a specific taste, smell and colour. It is then ground and sieved through cloth. The fine powder obtained is called snuff.

Marketing.—The market for bidis is wide as it is the common man's means of smoking. It has a local market and it is also exported to Ratnagiri, Kolaba and Karnatak. Manufacturers move from place to place to sell their products. *Jarda*, snuff and bidi are sold on a large scale in the fairs. These manufacturers market their products in the big fairs of Yallama, Kharsundi, Chinchali, etc.

Employment and labour.—Most of the workers are paid on the basis of piece-rate in bidi manufacturing. The rate of wage paid for 1,000 bidis ranges from Rs. 1.50 to Rs. 2. Women workers are found predominantly in this work as it provides a supplementary source of income to those women who can do this work in their spare time at home. In 1961 of the total number of 2,545 persons employed, 2,291 were women. On an average a woman worker produces 1,000 bidis per day and a man about 1,500 bidis per day. In snuff manufacturing also women workers are found to a large extent. This is a seasonal industry as they cannot do this work in the rainy season.

Finance.—A majority of the bidi concerns in the district are owned by the well-to-do people. They have large units operating in the market. The annual sale proceeds of a concern in Sangli (Musa Vidi) came to Rs. 18,12,463. The company had paid Rs 43,382 by way of wages in 1964.

There are no co-operatives in the bidi industry of the *jarda* and snuff industry. Co-operative effort will be of great help to the small entrepreneurs in this field.

Sugar products and confectionery.

There are at present two small-scale confectionery and sugar products manufacturing units in the distrirt. One is situated at Miraj which started production as early as 1936. After the establishment of the co-operative sugar factory, the other unit commenced its production in 1956 at Sangli. The two units provide employment to 50 persons throughout the year. These are the only two units of this type in Southern Maharashtra.

Raw materials.—The products are prepared from sugar which is purchased in Sangli market or from the factories nearby. The other requirements are citric acid, essences, cream of tartar, etc., which are purchased at Bombay and Ahmedabad.

The units are equipped with plants, crushers and pans. The estimated value of tools and equipment for one unit could be placed at about Rs. 30,000.

Production.—The annual installed capacity of the units is estimated at Rs. 26 lakhs. The products consist of sugar candy, white sugar (Lissa), toffees, sweets, etc. The total production of the two units was valued at Rs. 19.5 lakhs during the year 1961-62, of which nearly half was accounted for by white sugar (Lissa) and the rest was composed of sugar candy (*khadisakhar*) and confectionery. The value of annual fuel consumption of a unit for which information was available amounted to Rs. 11,983.26 in 1961-62.

Marketing.—Nearly 90 per cent of the products of the two units is sent to consumers in adjacent districts like Belgaum, Kolhapur, Satara, Ratnagiri, Bagalkot, Sholapur, etc. The current consumption of these products in the district is estimated at Rs. 2 lakhs. The demand for these products is on the increase in the district as elsewhere.

Employment.—In one unit, 18 persons were employed and they were paid Rs. 4,850.17 in 1961-62 by way of wages. Besides, many workers are employed in the brisk season on a temporary basis. Wages are usually paid at piece-rate. An unskilled worker gets about Rs. 1.50 to Rs. 2 per day.

Finance.—The two units have a total investment of Rs. 3.11 lakhs of which Rs. 2,65,000 is in working capital and the rest is in land, buildings, plants and equipment. Sufficient supply of sugar and chemicals at reasonable price is the prime necessity of the industry for its smooth working. There are no co-operative efforts in the industry as the existing units enjoy a fair degree of financial stability.

There does not appear to be any immediate scope for new units as the capacity of the existing units itself, if fully utilized, will be sufficient to meet the growing demand for some time to come.

Industrial Estate.

Industrial growth requires a scientific approach particularly in a developing economy. The objectives of establishing industrial estates are to develop the industries in a district to provide

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economic incentives to entrepreneurs, to exploit available labour and capital potentials and thus to help establish small-scale as well as large-scale industrial units. With these objectives in view, two industrial estates have been established in Sangli district, one at Sangli and the other at Miraj.

Sangli Industrial Estate Co-operative Society.—Situated on the outskirts of Sangli city and in close proximity to Madhavnagar, Sangli Industrial Estate Co-operative Society was established in the year 1960-61. It covers an area of 54.632 hectares (135 acres) and has a share capital of Rs. 10 lakhs. The estate received financial assistance from the Government, the Life Insurance Corporation and the Sangli Industrial Development Fund. The estate has 319 plots, of which 294 plots are of 465 sq. metres (5,000 square feet) and 25 plots of 3,720 square metres (40,000 square feet). By April 1966, out of the former, 122 plots were developed and out of the latter, 21 were developed.

Various industries have been started, the chief among them being re-rolling mills, foundries, light engineering, textiles, cement pipes, optical industries, furniture, cots, aluminium vessels, handmade paper, fountain-pens, forging, sizing, industrial chemicals, agricultural implements, etc. Till 1965, 70 such establishments working in the estate, provided employment to about 1,200 persons. The capital invested in these industrial establishments amounts to Rupees one crore. The following chart gives the position of factory sheds constructed during 1961-62, 1962-63 and 1963-64: —

FACTORY SHEDS CONSTRUCTED DURING 1961-62, 1962-63 AND 1963-64, AND THE COST OF CONSTRUCTION.

Year	Factory Sheds				Total	Cost of construction
	Small size		Large size			
	Construction completed	In progress	Construction completed	In progress		
						Rs.
1961-62 ..	56	24	5	1	86	5,22,625
1962-63 ..	19	14	1	1	35	2,54,645
1963-64 ..	22	12	1	1	36	3,21,498
Total ..	97	12	7	1	117	10,98,768

The category-wise classification of the industrial units functioning in the industrial estate is given below:—

Category	Number of units functioning in 1962-63	1963-64
(1) Engineering	21	23
(2) Cement products	1	1
(3) Optical industry	1	1
(4) Lissa sugar and peppermint.. ..	1	1
(5) Leather works	1	1
(6) Textiles (power looms)	14	17
(7) Aluminium	..	1
(8) Paper	..	1

The Industrial Estate Co-operative Society helps its members in various ways. such as receiving work orders, increasing their turnover, making available the raw material and capital required by them as also the construction material like galvanised sheets, asbestos, electricity, etc. Further, the society has made arrangements with the Life Insurance Corporation to provide loans to its members on easy terms.

Miraj Industrial Estate.—Another industrial estate has been established at Miraj by Miraj Industrial Estate Co-operative Society on Sangli-Miraj Road. The land was acquired for constructing the factory sheds. The number of plots for medium type of industries is 14 and that for small-scale factories is 57. Out of these, 12 medium and 21 small plots have been allotted to the members. Two plots have been reserved for facility centres and 4 for offices of the society. During 1962-63, only 3 industrial units commenced functioning in Miraj Industrial Estate. They were (1) cement moulding, (2) porcelain works, and (3) manufacture of sugar candy. The number increased to 6 in the year 1963-64, when three additional units, one each of electrical engineering. pharmaceutical drugs and machine job work were established.

A steady growth of industries is expected from these two industrial estates.

II—Cottage Industries

COTTAGE INDUSTRIES. Carpentry, Furniture and Blacksmithy.

As one of the prerequisites of constructional activity of any kind, the industry is pretty old and has not declined in importance. It s a hereditary occupation of *sutars* and *lohars*. In villages, they are engaged either in making or repairing the agricultural implements. Skilled artisans go for furniture making and are

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hired in house building activities. Despite the gradual replacement of outmoded implements by better machines and availability of finished products, the industry holds its position in the economy of the district.

Carpentry, Furniture and Blacksmithy.

There were about 1,000 persons in 1951 engaged in carpentry and smithy According to the 1961 Census, the total number of persons working in wood and wooden products is 11,708. Out of this, a considerable number is employed in carpentry. Though in every village there is a carpenter and a blacksmith, the artisans are mostly to be found in towns like Sangli, Miraj, Vita, Islampur and Tasgaon.

Raw materials.—Wood of different kinds, *viz., babul, neem* and teak forms the main raw material of a carpenter. At Sangli and Miraj there are timber depots and saw mills from where the required material is obtained. Blacksmiths get iron and steel from the markets at Sangli and Miraj. Old tins and scrap metal are utilized for petty repairing jobs. Wood merchants import the material from Karnatak area.

Tools and equipment.—Carpenters and smiths possess tools and implements handed over to them from their forefathers. They are chisel (*patashi*), saw (*karwat*), files (*kanas*), planning machine (*randha*), *gunit*, etc. A set of tools costs a carpenter about Rs. 200.

Products.- The carpenters make agricultural implements like ploughs, hoes, harrows, bullock carts which have local markets. Four carpenters working for about 12 days make one bullock-cart. Carpenters are also engaged in house building, tonga making, etc. Smiths generally do the work of repairing masonry tools, carts, etc. They also make cots and cradles from iron hoops. Some smiths manufacture buckets, axles of carts and nails

Marketing.--The skilled carpenters make tables, chairs and cup-boards which have a demand in towns. The demand for agricultural implements is local. The carpenters also attend various fairs and bazars in the district as well as outside to sell toys, cradles, and household wooden articles (*pat, latne,* etc.)

The blacksmiths sell their produce in local markets. Their products include crude and rough buckets. These articles however cannot compete with the produce of large-scale industries, Their work is therefore naturally confined to repairing and making such products as are not usually produced by large-scale industries (*kadhai*, horseshoe, sickle, etc.)

Employment.—Carpenters are busy throughout the year. Village smiths face unemployment in the rainy season. The earning of carpenter varies from Rs. 3 to Rs. 6 per day depending upon the skill and nature of the work. Blacksmiths also get Rs. 2 to Rs. 5 per day. They are generally paid on piece-work basis. Rural artisans switch over to agricultural labour in the rainy season if they have no other work.

Finance and Co-operation.—In cities, there are some establishments which directly engage carpenters for a given job. But most of the artisans in the rural as well as in urban areas carry on their profession independently. No independent carpenter can keep a stock of goods ready for sale for lack of sufficient finance. They purchase even the raw material on short term-credit from timber merchants. The condition of the blacksmiths is worse than that of carpenters in this regard.

Government has been extending financial as well as technical assistance to the artisans who are members of co-operative societies. There were 7 co-operative societies of carpentry and smithy with a membership of 147 and a share capital of Rs. 6,122 in 1961-62. The carpentry societies mostly deal in contract work and do not manufacture the finished goods on their own account and keep them for sale. The smithy societies are mostly engaged in manufacturing agricultural implements.

Bricks, Tiles and Pottery.

This industry is found in almost all big villages in the district mostly followed by Kumbhar families as a hereditary occupation. They manufacture bricks and tiles in the basins of the rivers Krishna and Warna where ample water and clay are available. Bhilwadi, Bramhnal, Sangalwadi, Haripur, Ankali, Dhamani are the important centres of this industry. About 1,000 people were engaged in the industry in 1951. Their number increased to 1934 in 1961.

Raw materials.—The industry requires black and red clay, coke and groundnut husk as raw materials. Clay is available on the river sides while coke is obtained from Miraj market.

Tools and equipment.—The equipment of the potter consists of potter's wheel with a rod. For making bricks and tiles, moulds, kiln, sieve, etc., are required. The potters use *pimpal* and banyan tree sticks as fuel. The cost of fuel for baking 10,000 bricks comes to about Rs. 100.

Production and marketing.—Proportionate and suitable earth is mixed with coke or ash and horse dung and soaked for sometime in water. The mixture is then properly kneaded and prepared for making earthenwares. The main articles produced are *ghagars* and *madkis* which are mainly bought by the poorer section of the community. There is a great demand for such earthenware in the summer season when they are used for storing drinking water. Besides these articles, flower pots and clay toys are also produced.

The industry is seasonal and works for about six months, *i.e.*, from November to May. About 10,000 bricks could be produced by 10 persons in 10 days at a cost of about Rs. 350, including wages. There is a growing demand for bricks due to the increasing construction activities.

Employment and labour.—As the industry is seasonal, the period of employment varies between 4 and 6 months. When the

CHAPTER 5. — Industries. COTTAGE INDUSTRIES. Bricks, Tiles and Pottery.

artisans are not busy they take to agriculture. The seasonal nature of the industry has resulted in the exodus of the artisans to cities and towns.

Pottery is undertaken by individual proprietors both in the villages and towns. The raising of capital for the industry has always been a problem to the artisans.

Since the inception of planning, efforts have been made to conduct the industry on a co-operative basis. There were in 1961-62, 11 co-operative societies, with 383 members. The capital of these societies in that year was Rs. 15,011 and the value of their production Rs. 58,983. A large segment of the industry is outside the co-operative fold. The industry has great development potentiality and considerable progress will be made if a systematic and co-operative approach is made towards it.

Goldsmithy and Silversmithy.

Sangli is famous for the making of ornaments and gold and silver articles. There were 400 artisans engaged in the industry in 1951. In 1961, the figure stood at 883. The gold control order of 1963 has affected the industry to a very great extent. Sangli is an important centre where gold and silver articles are prepared and marketed on large scale. Miraj, Tasgaon, Vita, Islampur are the other centres of the industry. The artisans mainly comprise the community of Sonars who are traditionally engaged in the industry.

Raw materials.—Gold and silver are the primary materials required. Copper and different kinds of soldering material are the other requirements. Gold and silver are obtained from Bombay, Poona and Kolhapur. Sometimes, old ornaments are melted, and the metal is used in making new ornaments.

Tools and equipment.-The type of tools required depends upon the nature and quality of the ornaments made. Anvils, hammers, bellows, pincers (*chimata*), pots, crucibles, moulds, nails, file, etc., are the tools used by the artisans. A small establishment requires tools worth Rs. 150 to Rs. 200. For specialised and skilled jobs instruments and tools costing about Rs. 1,000 are required. If there are any mechanical or electrical units like dye-press, electroplating instrument or machine for rolling strings, initial investment comes to about Rs. 7,000.

Production.—The gold and silver ornaments comprise bangles, various types of bracelets, rings, strings of beads, neckwear, silver frames, gold and silver buttons, silverwares, etc. The artisans get orders in advance along with the provision of raw material from shroffs or directly from customers. Rural artisans usually get direct orders from customers. Artisans make attractive gold rings of various types. *Meena* work is a very skilful and delicate job of drawing names and pictures, etc., on small rings, neckwear or bangles of gold. Some undertake the job of electroplating, gold-planting or silverplating of various metal articles and wristwatches. *Tordi* or anklet made of silver is another important ornament

manufactured by many silversmiths. Dinner dishes, pots and spoons of silver are manufactured in die. Some artisans make threads of silver and gold. The variety of ornaments made is very wide and specialisation is usually followed.

Marketing.—The village artisans have their petty workshops in their homes. They make gold and silver ornaments on orders placed well in advance. Artisans and *sarafs* at Sangli and Miraj maintain regular customers. Orders are also received from other places outside the district and sometimes the artisans themselves go out to sell the articles made by them. The demand for these articles has undergone considerable changes during the last 25 years, due to the changes in the tastes of the people. People now prefer cheaper and lighter types of ornaments to heavy and very costly ones.

Employment and Labour.—Generally, the male members of the family work as a unit. More skill than labour is involved in the execution of a job. A master craftsman or a shop owner employs outside labour, and pays the artisans usually at piece-rate. Those who make gold and silver beads are employed on contract basis by *karkhandars* and are paid Rs. 3 to Rs. 4 per day.

Finance.—The industry when operated on a small-scale requires an initial investment of about Rs. 1,000 including the working capital. Artisans, generally, are poor and do not have enough capital to start an independent business. Most of the workers take orders, get the materials from *sarafs* and do the work on a contract basis .

There are no co-operatives of the artisans. The need for co-operation in the fields of production and marketing is imperative to improve the lot of artisans in the industry.

Copper and Brass works.

A majority of the persons engaged in the industry belong to the Tambat and Kasar communities. A few Marathas, Malis and Muslims have also taken up this occupation. The industry has now lost its importance considerably due to the mechanisation of the process of production and the introduction of stainless steel. In 1951, there were 273 persons engaged in the industry. Besides, a number of people were engaged in the trade as shopkeepers and servants. In 1961, the number stood at 330. The industry is mainly centred in Sangli, Miraj and Tasgaon.

Raw materials.—Copper and alloys of copper are the raw materials required by the industry. Copper is bought in the form of ingots, slab, billets and scraps. Zinc and tin are used to alloy copper for rerolling and castware. Metal sheets are available in Sangli from a local factory. Chemicals like sulphur and acids are also used.

Tools, equipment and fuel.—Tambats (copper smiths) use hammers, chisels, cutters, tongs, clippers, etc., as tools. Heating is commonly done by blowers except in a few cases where electricity is used. The tools and equipment cost about Rs. 500. Firewood, coke and electricity are used as feul.

CHAPTER 5. Industries. COTTAGE INDUSTRIES. Copper and Brass works.

Production.—The establishments are mostly non-mechanised and manufacture vessels by the hammering process. Brass-sheets are beaten into required shape to form utensils such as *ghagar, handas, lotas* and *tapeli* for domestic use. One artisan produces on an average two *tapelis* weighing about 4.536 kilograms (10 lbs.) per day. The method of production is simple and old fashioned. In some mechanised establishments processes like cutting, pressing, moulding, polishing, etc., are carried out with the help of machines.

Marketing.—The main products in demand are the utensils made from copper and brass. Household articles are sold in the markets at Sangli, Miraj, Tasgaon, etc. The products are also exported to Karnatak and other neighbouring districts.

Employment.—Often the merchants supply copper and brass sheets to the artisans who prepare the articles and receive wages. The merchants arrange for the sale of articles thus produced. People working on monthly wage are paid about Rs. 80 to Rs. 90. In a majority of cases the artisans are engaged to produce utensils on a piece-rate basis or on a contract basis. Their establishments are at their residence where the articles are made.

The National Metal Industries, established in 1958 at Sangli, supplies on an average brass and copper sheets worth Rs. 14 lakhs annually. The total investment in the factory amounts to Rs. 4 lakhs. The factory provides employment for 40 persons both skilled and unskilled. Annually it requires raw materials worth Rs. 12 lakhs. The factory consumes fuel valued at Rs. 25,000 every year. It is the only factory of its kind in Southern Maharashtra. Its annual capacity of production is estimated at (1,000 tons) 1016.05 metric tons.

Grain-parching.

There were, in the district, 200 people engaged in the preparation of *pohe* and *churmure* in 1951. But a large number is employed in marketing the products. The industry is localised mainly in the towns where paddy is directly imported. The main centres where these products are prepared are Sangli, Miraj, Tasgaon, Shirala and Islampur.

Tools and equipment.—In the preparation of *pohe* and *churmure*, *Kadhai* or *pan* is required for boiling paddy. The tools and equipment consist of hearth, iron sieve for separation of sand and *churmure* and hammer with level arrangement for beating rice. The whole set costs about Rs. 150 to Rs. 250.

Process.—The workers adopt traditional methods and use old types of tools and equipment. Paddy is first boiled, then dried on the oven and later dehusked into rice. The rice is further salted, heated and finally parched in three different vessels for making into *churmure*. Parched rice is separated from the sand with a large iron sieve specially prepared for the purpose.

For *Pohe* making, paddy is kept soaked in hot water for a day, is slightly parched on the oven and put into a stone mortar when it is slightly soft. Then it is taken for beating.

One bag of paddy yields about five bags of *churmure* (about 104.51 kg. or 112 seers) by measure.

Marketing.—The market for *pohe* and *churmure* is generally local and the manufacturers themselves sell their products. In cities, a few shops could be found selling *pohe* and *churmure* from which crisp and spicy edibles are prepared.

Employment and labour.—Usually members of the family are engaged in the work. A temporary worker when employed gets about Rs. 2 to Rs. 2.50 per day. Often the wage is paid at piece-rate. The 1961 Census returns 516 persons engaged in this business.

Finance.—Generally, artisans require about Rs. 500 to Rs. 1,000 for stocking paddy. The artisans borrow from local money-lenders. There is no co-operative society of the workers.

Bamboo-working.

Bamboo-working is generally followed by members of the Burud community as a hereditary occupation. Due to its little capital requirement and traditional nature, the craft is ubiquitous in the district. The important centres of the industry are Sangli, Miraj, Islampur, Tasgaon, Malgaon and Palus. Every village or town has at least one or two families of the artisans. In 1961, 1,610 persons were engaged in this profession.

Raw materials.—Bamboo, the chief raw material, is available in the markets of Sangli, Miraj and Islampur to which centres it is brought from the Konkan area. A bamboo of medium size is sold at ten annas to one rupee.

Tools and equipment.—Artisans use simple tools such as sickle (*koyta*), knife, wooden blocks, chisel, etc. A whole set of tools costs about Rs. 15 to Rs. 25. These tools are available in the markets of Sangli and Miraj. A knife lasts for about three to five years while the life of a sickle is about 7 to 10 years.

Production.—Bamboo strips are taken out with a *koyta* and baskets are made with the help of a knife. Sifters (*gholana*), grain containers (*kanagi*), mats, *supas*, *topalis*, etc., are also made by the artisans. A mat of 1.52 x 3.05 metres (5′ x 10′) is prepared by two persons in a day. The bark of the bamboos from which a mat is made is used for making baskets.

Marketing.—Articles made from bamboo are of common use in households. The demand is mostly of a local nature. The products of the industry are sold in weekly bazars of Sangli, Miraj, Islampur, Tasgaon, etc.

Employment and labour.—The family works as a unit and no outside labour is employed. The work is brisk except in rainy season when artisans take to other professions such as agriculture.

CHAPTER 5. Industries. COTTAGE INDUSTRIES. Bamboo-working.

Finance and co-operation.—There were two cane and bamboo workers societies in the district in 1961-62, one at Kundal and the other at Malgaon. These societies were mostly dealing in marketing of bamboo articles. The societies with a membership of 70 had a share capital of Rs. 1,375, working capital of Rs. 3,751, and an annual turnover of Rs. 18,862 in 1961-62.

Musical Instruments-Making.

There are few places in India where musical instruments are prepared and there are still fewer places where all varieties of Indian musical instruments are made. Miraj, the home of the most celebrated musician Abdul Karim Khan, is well-known in India for quality musical instruments. It is a hereditary occupation of a few families, and the artisans possess exceptional artistic skill and workmanship. There are about 100 families employed in the work and the number of people dependent on the craft is about 400 to 500. About 22 units are functioning whole time.

The origin of the industry dates back to five generations when one Farijsaheb established the industry at Miraj. Miraj had been a princely state where the industry grew and flourished due to the court patronage to the artisans and musicians.

Raw materials.—The raw materials consist of teak wood, red pine wood (called *shiwan lakud*), bitter pumpkin (*kadu bhopala*), steel strings, etc. Teak wood (*shishavi*) is brought from Belgaum and *shiwan lakud* made from red pine wood is purchased from Konkan or Kolhapur. *Kadu bhopala* is obtained from Pandharpur. The strings which are made from fine German steel are purchased at Bombay.

Tools and equipment.—These consist of carpenter's planing machine, file, drilling machine, saw and special kind of chisel called *patashi*. A set of these tools and equipment costs about Rs. 500.

Process.—The bitter pumpkin is cut into convenient sizes and made hollow by taking out the marrow contents. Then it is joined to a horizontal wooden beam with the help of the wooden strips called neck. The neck and wooden beam are fixed with sealing-wax. The neck is decorated artistically. After polishing the beam, the strings are fastened to small wooden pegs with the necessary arrangement for giving tension to the strings.

Marketing.—The instruments are sent to Poona, Bombay, Delhi, Lucknow and other important places in India. The instruments are known for their musical quality and are highly in demand.

Employment.—An average artisan can produce a musical instrument within 8 to 10 days. The artisans possess a great skill and have fine musical ear to the symphony of musical tunes. Members of the family and some unskilled workers help in minor jobs.

Finance and co-operation.—There is a co-operative society of artisans manufacturing musical instruments at Miraj. It also supplies raw materials to its members. The society supplied raw materials worth Rs.4,563 to its members during the year 1961-62.

Although much has been achieved, much more still remains to be done in the field of this industry. The amelioration of the artisans can be attempted to by embracing, within an efficient co-operative organisation, all existing activity. Improvement in technique and marketing will ensure bright prospects for the industry.

Rope-making.

In almost every village rope-makers are to be found. Quite a large number of artisans are engaged in this industry. In 1951, approximately 12,000 artisans were engaged in the industry. The important centres of the industry are Kavlapur, Ashte, Tasgaon, Malgaon, Savalaj, Palus and Savarade.

Raw material.—*Ghaypat*, from which fibre is extracted, is grown all over the district. It is planted on bunds which serve as fencing to the field or is grown on the banks of river Krishna. Ready fibre is brought for sale and the same is purchased by rope-makers. *Sisal kekti* is also found in abundant quantity in the district. Large quantities of ready fibre are exported not only to the neighbouring districts of Sholapur and Bijapur but to Bombay and Calcutta. Fibre extraction is done by the process of retting.

Tools and equipment.—As the whole process of rope making is done mostly by hands, no tools except a wooden twisting wheel is used in it. This is of old and crude type.

Production process.—*Ghaypat* is retted in water for eight days, dried in air for a day and thrashed by a wooden stick. It is then cleansed in water to get pure fibre. A handful of fibre is taken and twisted into thin strands which are then carried by the same process to a suitable length. One person takes the long strand and the other goes to a distance of 9.14 to 18.29 metres (30 to 60 feet) and starts twisting it. The twisted length is folded and again twisted with the help of a wooden twisting wheel into a rope consisting of 3 to 12 strands as required.

Limestone Industry.

The deposit of limestone occurs in various forms and degrees in Sangli district. Deposits have been found at Arag, Bedag and Narwad in large quantities. The proximity of the limestone rocks is the main precondition for the development of this industry as the transport cost is very heavy. A large number of persons is engaged in this industry which is located at Miraj, Salgar, Sangli, Arag, Bedag, Narwad and the surrounding area. Lime burning is done throughout the year but it is brisk in fair seasons i.e., in summer and winter. Limestone is used for making mortar. Mortar *ghanis* are found working at many places in the district. Mortar making and limestone making are complementary industries. There is a fair demand for mortar because it is used as a substitute for cement for building purpose.

CHAPTER 5. Industries. COTTAGE INDUSTRIES. Limestone Industry.

There are two varieties of limestone ; one is the hard variety used for making mortar and the other the soft one which gives white lime used for white-washing.

The raw material requirement of the industry is stone containing lime. The fuel used is charcoal, cow-dung cake and waste coal from the railway. Lime is burned in kilns. The stone and fuel are fed through the upper opening and the burnt lime is removed through the lower opening. Hammers, shovels, baskets and copper pots are used as equipment.

The market for the product is mainly local though some quantity is exported to Kolhapur and Satara districts.

Mostly men workers are employed as the process of lime making is arduous. Women, when employed, do the preliminary job of stone breaking.

The industry however is in a poor state and the artisans possess very little capital and live from hand to mouth. No attempts were made in the past towards the proper development of the industry. However, artisans from Narwad have proposed to organise a co-operative society at Narwad. Government had explored the possibility of starting a cement factory in this area, but dropped the idea due to the low percentage of lime, ranging from 32 to 35 in the stone.

Oil-pressing

This district is well-known for its groundnut crop. Groundnut is produced practically by every farming family of the district. There is at least one *ghani* in every village. There were about 300 country *ghanis* and 14 husking *ghanis* working in the area and employing about 1,600 artisans in 1951. In 1961, at some places, oil was extracted from *kardi* (safflower) and *jawas* also. Islampur, Shirala, Yellur, Peth, Jath, Sangli and Kavlapur are the main centres of the industry.

Raw materials.—Groundnut and safflower from which oil is extracted are purchased from Sangli, Takari and Islampur markets. Besides, *karanji* seeds are also crushed into *karanji* oil.

Tools and equipment.—Most of the *ghanis* are old type country *kolu ghanis* driven by bullocks. There are no implements except drums for oil storage and an iron bar. The cost of a *kolu ghani* is about Rs. 300.

Process.—The bullock is yoked to the upper beam of *ghanis*, and it goes round it. The seeds are crushed by the revolving cylinder. Oil gathers in the trough while the residue forms into a solid mass round the sides of the trough as oilcake. On an average, about 45.36 kg. (100 lbs.) of groundnut seeds are crushed in ten hours and yield about 13.608 kg. (30 lbs.) of oil and 31.75 kg. (70 lbs.) of oilcake.

Marketing.—The market for *ghani* oil is entirely local. The oilcake however is exported to Ratnagiri district and Phaltan where it is used as a manure for sugarcane. The price of cake varies according to the quality and oil content.

Employment and labour.—Generally, the adult members of the Teli family operate the *ghani*. The industry is seasonal from November to July. In the rainy season, the artisans take to agriculture as a subsidiary occupation.

Finance.—The capital requirements for the industry are large as the oilmen have to keep a good stock of groundnut. It is stocked in the season when prices are generally low. In villages, the cultivators reserve their own produce for oil pressing. Besides, the *ghani* owners crush the groundnut produce of the local people and earn service charges. Telis either borrow money for their working capital or purchase groundnut on credit.

Co-operation.—There were eight co-operative societies of oil *ghani* workers with a membership of 169, share capital of Rs. 24,891 and working capital of Rs. 1,05,261 in 1961-62. The societies do not undertake production of oil on their own but sell the oil produced by their members to the consumers. The Maharashtra State Village Industries Board advances loans for share capital and working capital to these societies.

Handlooms (Cotton weaving.)

In 1951, there were about 1,500 handlooms in this district, of which about 1,000 were automatic looms and the remaining pit fly-shuttle looms. The number increased to 1,674 at the end of the First Five-Year Plan, and in 1958, there were 1,844 registered handlooms. Throw-shuttle pit looms have become more or less extinct in this area.

The important handloom centres are Budhagaon, Miraj, Kavathe Mahankal, Sangli, Islampur, Bableshwar, Vita, Kundal and Kadegaon. Almost all the looms are run by independent weaver families with the exception of some who engage weavers on daily wages or on piece work at Sangli, Miraj and Vita.

Raw materials.—Yarn is available in the local markets. However, some of the weavers' societies distribute yarn and other requirements such as silk and art silk to the weaver members. The weavers use the following counts of yarn—10s, 16s, 30s, and 60s. Usually one loom requires about 30 to 40 lbs. of medium count yarn per month.

Tools and equipment.—As stated before, only fly-shuttle and automatic take-up motion looms are in vogue in this area. They are manufactured at Ichalkaranji. Warping, with the exception at Sangli, Miraj, Vita and Budhagaon, where warping reels are used, is of the old method. Sizing also is carried on in the same way.

The prices of the loom and its accessories such as reeds, shuttles, pirns, etc., are approximately as follows:—

(1) Fly-shuttle loom about Rs. 250; (2) Beam Rs. 28 to Rs. 35; (3) *Phani* Rs. 7 to Rs. 14; (4) Creel machine Rs. 125: (5) Dobby Rs. 40; (6) *Dhote* Rs. 7 to Rs. 14 per pair; (7) *Rahat* Rs. 75; (8) Sticks 6 annas per dozen; (9) *Waisat* Rs. 10 to Rs. 22

CHAPTER 5. Industries. COTTAGE INDUSTRIES. Handlooms (Cotton weaving).

Production.—The products of the industry are sarees, *patals*, *dhotis*, shirtings and *pasodis*. The common counts of yarn used are 20s, 30s and 40s. Coarser yarn of 10s and 16s is used for making carpets (*pattyas*). Silk and art silk is used in the production of sarees and *patals*.

Marketing.—The handloom products are locally sold at the markets at Tasgaon, Sangli, Miraj and Kavathe Mahankal. Products of fine varieties to suit individual tastes are also produced.

Employment and labour.—The art of weaving has been hereditary and most of the workers are trained. The industry works from November to June briskly, but the business is slack during the rainy season.

On an average, 3 sarees are woven in 2 days on automatic looms, and one saree on fly-shuttle looms per day. The income of a weaver's family, where preparatory processes are also carried out, ranges from Rs. 2.50 to Rs. 3 per day. The wages, paid on piece work basis, are as follow:—

(1) 9 yds. of 40 count yarn Rs. 2.33; (2) 6 yds. of 40 count yarn Rs. 1.55; (3) 5 yds. of 40 count yarn Rs. 1.30.

Finance.—The weavers require about Rs. 600 to Rs. 750 as initial capital including the cost of raw material, loom and contingent charges. Due to the poor economic conditions of the weavers, it is not possible for them to raise even this much initial capital. The products also cannot compete with machine-made goods. Hence, government gives relief to the handloom weavers by extending them financial assistance for buying yarn and by marketing their products. This assistance is given through the weavers co-operative societies only. A loan of Rs. 200 per loom is sanctioned as working capital. A sum of Rs. 50,000 was allotted to Sangli district in order to work 250 handlooms during the first five-year plan period.

The total assistance sanctioned to the handloom industry during 1957 to 1962 amounted to Rs. 6,65,577. It was sanctioned under the Handloom Development Scheme mainly for the purpose of conversion of handlooms into powerlooms. Grants are also given for opening of sales depots, plying vans for the sale of handloom cloth, establishment of dyeing and model production centres.

In Sangli district there were 17 weavers co-operative societies in 1961 with 1,291 members and a total share capital of Rs. 1,03,620. The Sangli Group Winkar Sahakari Society, Ltd., has been sanctioned 15 powerlooms under the scheme of conversion of handlooms into powerlooms. The society produced cloth valued at Rs. 1,10,639 in 1961.

At Vita, there is a school imparting training in weaving to students. The students are paid a stipend ranging from Rs. 30 to Rs. 40 per month.

CHAPTER 5. Industries. COTTAGE INDUSTRIES. Wool-weaving.

Wool-weaving is one of the oldest industries of the district. It was estimated that in 1951 there were about 200 looms in this district. In 1961, the important centres of the industry were Atpadi, Islampur, Nagaon-Kavathe, Palus, Kargani, Dhalgaon, Kharsundi, etc. The eastern part of Khanapur taluka *i.e.*, Atpadi Mahal is a hilly track and sheep breeding is carried on as a subsidiary occupation by the farmers. The other important place is Dhalgaon located at a distance of 64.374 km. (40 miles) from Miraj on Miraj-Pandharpur railway line. There are 33,335 sheep in Khanapur taluka for which statistical data is available. The annual production of wool is nearly about 22,650 kg. (50,000 lbs.) in this taluka. Wool-weaving is done by the artisans called Sanagars and sheep-breeding is undertaken by the Dhanagars.

Raw materials.—In this area, ready-spun yarn of good quality wool is available. Wool is sheared twice in a year *i.e.*, in the months of January and June. The wool sheared in the month of January is stiff whereas that sheared in June is soft and glazy and gives yarn of a superior and uniform quality. Tamarind seeds are required for wool-yarn production.

Tools and equipment.—The artisans in the industry use very old fashioned tools, *viz.*, pit and throw-shuttle looms. A hollow bamboo 0.30 metres (12′) in length and one and half inches in diametre is used as shuttle. The traditional *charkha* is also utilised by weavers. The *charkha* costs about Rs. 8 to Rs. 10 and pit-loom costs Rs. 250 to Rs. 300.

Production.—Rough woollen blankets called *ghongadis* are manufactured by the wool weavers, which are 1.27 metres (50″) in width and 2.29 to 2.54 metres (90″ to 100″) in length. The production is spread over the following processes:—

(1) carding of raw wool;

(2) making of wool threads from the yarn with the help of *charkha* and *takali*;

(3) warping which consists of spreading yarn according to the size of finished product *i.e.*, *ghongadi* or rug.

(4) Sizing:—sizing of the yarn with the solution of tamarind seeds;

(5) weaving.

A skilled artisan weaves one *ghongadi* in 1½ days including all the preparatory processes.

Marketing.—The price of the blankets varies from Rs. 10 to Rs. 30 according to the quality of wool and worksmanship. The *ghongadis* are partly sold locally and also exported to Ratnagiri and Kolaba districts. During summer weavers move from place to place selling their products. Yarn is also sold in the important centres on bazar days. The marketing is done in the local units called *muri* and *padgri*. The rate per pound of woollen yarn is about Rs. 2.75 to Rs. 3.

CHAPTER 5. Industries. COTTAGE INDUSTRIES. Wool-weaving.

Employment and labour.—The industry keeps the weavers busy for nearly 8 months in a year. Wool-weaving is a seasonal industry and the artisans take to agriculture during the rainy season. On an average a family of wool-weavers earns about Rs. 3 per day. Outside labour when employed is paid about Rs. 1.50 to Rs. 3.50 per piece depending upon its size.

Finance and co-operation.—The industry is run on a proprietary basis and very few artisans work under the master weaver. The industry requires an initial capital of about Rs. 700. The amount is usually borrowed from local merchants.

There were 9 wool-weavers' co-operative societies functioning in the district in 1961 with a membership of 6,470. They had a working capital of Rs. 14,867. The societies produced goods worth Rs. 42,535. Two societies have been granted recognition by the Khadi and Village Industries Board. The District Industrial Co-operative Association and two primary weavers co-operative societies were sanctioned sales depots. The total sales in 1960-61 amounted to Rs. 47,622.

In Khanapur block, a training school has been opened where training in wool-weaving is given. The duration of the course is one year. The trainees when they complete their training, work on improved looms.

Rope-making

Big and small ropes called *nadas*, *kasaras*, *saundars* and bullock neck-bands are prepared by the rope-makers. Spinning requires 2 workers while twisting requires the services of three.

Marketing.—The ropes prepared in this district are in great demand owing to their superior quality. The product is sent to Gadag, Savnur, Hubli, Belgaum, Barsi, Sholapur and Pandharpur. There is a considerable local market also for the products. Thick ropes are used on a *mot* for fetching water from a well. Each *nada* is sold at about Rs. 6 to Rs. 7.

Employment and labour.—Every family of rope-makers works as one unit. On an average a family of four persons engaged in this industry earns about Rs. 6 per day. The rope makers are mostly engaged throughout the year.

Finance and co-operation.—The artisans obtain finance from the village money-lenders. The advances are usually for a short term, the period ranging from two to three months.

There were three co-operative societies of rope-makers in the district in 1951. The number rose to 12 in 1961. Of these societies, three have taken up production of rope and purchased raw materials to the extent of Rs. 3,838 and sold finished goods valued at Rs. 7,369 in 1961. The societies paid Rs. 1,737 as wages to their members engaged in production in the same year.

Tanning.

In 1951, about 1,000 persons were engaged in this industry. It is followed by Dhors, and Chambhars as a hereditary occupation. The important centres of this industry are Sangli, Savalaj, Palus,

Tasgaon, Atpadi, Kavlapur and Miraj. Among these, Atpadi is the most important. Excepting Miraj, Sangli and Ashta, where there are master tanners who employ artisans on wage basis, in all places the work is carried on independently by the artisans themselves.

Raw materials.—The raw materials required by the industry are hides, lime and chemicals like potassium dichromate which are mostly brought from Bombay. In rural areas, tanners purchase raw hides locally. *Hirda* and *babul* bark, used in this process, are also available locally.

Tools and equipment.—The equipment consists of two or three lime pits, tubs, washing tanks and tools like wooden mallets, *rapis, aris*, etc. The tanning and liming pits are *kachcha* constructions, The entire equipment of a unit costs between Rs. 800 and 1,000.

Process of production.—The artisans follow 'bag tanning' method. Usually a tanner and his family can tan 20 hides in 30 to 34 days The hide is macerated in lime water to separate the hair, the fat and the fleshy parts from it. After the hide is well soaked, the fleshy parts are removed with a knife (*rapi*). It is then washed and soaked for nearly three days in a light solution of *babul* bark and *hirda* water. To have a thorough tanned hide, the process of soaking is repeated thrice. The hide is then tied into a bag and hung up with a stronger solution of *babul* bark and *hirda* water. It is kept in this state for seven days. On the eighth day it is washed and again dried. It is then ready for sale.

For raw hide weighing one maund, 9.33 kg. (10 seers) of fresh lime water is required and a solution of 11.20 kg. (12 seers) of *babul* bark and 3.73 kg. (4 seers) of *hirda* is taken for each washing. Approximately 30 seers of soaked (*pakka*) hide are obtained from one maund of raw hide of cow and 32.66 kg. (35 seers) from one maund of raw hide of buffalo.

The cost of tanning of one maund of raw hide comes to about Rs. 80 while tanned material of 21.46 kg. (23 seers) obtained from it fetches about Rs. 92.

Marketing.—Besides the usual variety of tanned leather which is sold to leather workers in local markets, new varieties such as pickers, belts, roller skins are manufactured by the tanners themselves. Pickers and belts are sold locally as well as sent to Bombay, There are only two centres *viz*., Sangli and Kavlapur where this work is carried on.

Employment.—All the members of the tanner's family are engaged in the industry throughout the year except the rainy seasons. One family of three members tans 20 pieces of buffalo hides weighing about 453.59 kg. (1,000 lbs.) a month.

Finance and co-operation.—This industry requires a considerable amount of capital. An artisan requires about Rs. 2,000 as working capital. The amount is obtained by raising short-term loans. Of

CHAPTER 5. Industries. COTTAGE INDUSTRIES. Tanning.

the four tanners co-operative societies in the district, three were defunct in 1961-62. The society at Kavlapur produced goods worth Rs. 15,193, and sold finished goods to the extent of Rs. 13,519. The society paid wages of Rs. 2,517 in the same year. The society is recognised as a model tannery by the Maharashtra State Khadi and Village Industries Board.

The tanners are generally poor. They find it difficult to compete with well-organized leather manufacturing concerns which sell their products at lower price.

Leather.

Like all other cottage industries, this industry is also carried on as a hereditary occupation by members of the Chambhar community. In 1951, approximately 3,000 people were working in the industry in this district. In 1961, the number increased by a few artisans. The industry is mainly localised at Sangli, Miraj, Tasgaon, Manerajuri, Yelavi and Kavlapur.

Raw materials.—Tanned leather, rubber for soles, dyed and fancy leather, nails, polish, etc., constitute the raw material requirements of the industry. They are available locally and especially in the markets of Sangli, Miraj and Kolhapur. Such articles like plastic, rings, etc., are obtained from Bombay.

Tools and implements.—Tools of the artisans are traditional and are of old type. These consist of *ari, rapi*, punches, hammer, wooded blocks, *pakkad*, etc. Sewing machines are also used by some of them. A set of such tools including a sewing machine costs Rs. 600 to Rs. 700.

Production.—Articles which are produced usually in large quantities are *chappals*, shoes and sandals. Cycle seat covers and money purses are also prepared. As good quality tanned leather is available in this area, durable finished products are manufactured here. The only concern manufacturing agricultural and textile leather in the district is at Sangli. This is a mechanised unit employing 4 temporary hands for stitching and polishing leather belts while the work of operating the machine is done by 3 family hands. The cost of production of *chappal*, boots, sandals, etc., varies according to the quality of the leather and design.

Marketing.—There is a fairly good demand for the products locally as well as from outside the district. The products have, however, to face keen competition from manufacturing companies. The machine-made articles are attractive substitutes for the local hand-made articles.

Employment and labour.—Leather-working provides full-time employment to the artisans. In big cities, establishments employ the artisans and pay them daily wage or at piece rate. In the rainy season when the work is slack, the artisans take to agriculture.

Co-operation.—There were four leather-workers co-operative societies working in the district in 1961-62. They produced goods

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Leather.

worth Rs. 21,432 in that year. The societies paid wages to the members to the extent of Rs. 4,137. The societies received financial assistance from the government.

III—LABOUR ORGANISATION

LABOUR ORGANISATION.

The present industrial development of Sangli district is mostly of a recent origin, though an engineering factory at Kirloskarwadi was established as early as 1910. The first trade union to be registered under the Indian Trade Union Act of 1926 in the district was Kirloskar Kamgar Union in the year 1951. By the end of March 1963, the total number of trade unions, registered under the Indian Trade Union Act, 1926, in the district, was eighteen, of which eight were from manufacturing group, one from transport and communications (other than workshop) group, four from service group and five from 'activities not adequately described' group.

By the end of March 1963, the total membership of all the 18 unions was 4.028, with a total income and expenditure amounting to Rs. 20,639 and Rs. 21.279, respectively. The value of the total assets was of the order of Rs. 10,649.

Three strikes were organised in 1962, one each in textile, engineering and miscellaneous group. The total number of workers involved in these strikes was 136. 1,909 men days were lost due to these strikes. Out of these three strikes, one was successful, in one the parties arrived at a compromise, and one resulted in failure. The main cause for the occurrence of these strikes was regarding payment of arrears of wages.

The Bombay Welfare Fund Act, 1963, has not been applied to Sangli district.

As regards wage rates, different industries to which Minimum Wages Act is applicable, have different wage schedules. In most cases, the nature of production, size of industry and products of the industry have been taken into consideration while determining the rates of minimum wages. However, on an average, the monthly wages varies from Rs. 100 to Rs. 125, Rs. 80 to Rs. 100 and Rs. 60 to Rs. 75 for skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled workers, respectively.

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CHAPTER 6—BANKING, TRADE AND COMMERCE

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

INTRODUCTION.

THIS CHAPTER IS DIVIDED INTO TWO PARTS. The first part deals with the operation of the various credit institutions in the district, and the second with the multifarious trade activity that takes place in the district. Both these form an integral part of the economic system of the district and depend for their growth and prosperity upon each other. Both of them, again, have grown enormously during the post-Independence period, although the trade activity in the district has a much chequered and longer history as it dates back to a remote past. The credit institutions, on the other hand, with the sole exception of the money-lender, have developed only recently. Besides, they belong more or less to the organised sector of the district economy.

Under the British rule and a few years after Independence the district was not a separate entity as it is today, but some of its present talukas were part of the then Satara district and a few others constituted the ex-princely states. The present Sangli district was formed from 1st August 1949.

The only credit agency, that operated from a very long time, was that of money-lenders who catered to the credit needs of the people. In fact, till the implementation of the Bombay Money-lenders' Act of 1946 in this district, he dominated the financial field. But the high rates of interest charged and the mal-practices adopted by him only aggravated the poverty of the agricultural population that had already suffered from famines and ancestral debts. The Agricultural Debtor's Relief Act relieved to a large extent the heavy strain of debt over them, and the Money-lenders' Act saved them from the harassment of their creditors. It was only after the formation and the growth of the co-operative movement in the district that the majority of the farmers and cultivators could prosper.

The second part of this chapter describes the commercial and the trade activities in the district which mainly centre round the town of Sangli. Sangli was the capital of the ex-Sangli state and is at present the headquarters of the Sangli district. Its importance, however, lies in its being the chief commercial centre of the Deccan Maharashtra. Situated on the banks of the Krishna, Sangli has benefited from its location in a tract which

CHAPTER 6. Banking, Trade and Commerce. INTRODUCTION.

is extremely rich in the production of agricultural commodities such as turmeric, jaggery, groundnut, chillis and tobacco. These commodities have a flourishing trade which is further facilitated by the National and State Highways running a distance of over 80.467 km. (50 miles) and by the railway routes passing through the district. One of them is the Southern Railway route running through the eastern part of Walwa, the western part of Tasgaon and the central portion of Miraj taluka. The other route runs from Miraj to Pandharpur and passes through Miraj and Jath talukas.

Besides Sangli, a number of other markets have come up in the district during the last thirty years or so. They are Islampur, Jath and others where trade in certain commodities is regulated under the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act of 1939. Through them the Government attempts to regulate the trade in agricultural commodities with a view to stabilising the prices and minimising the uncertainties as regards trade. The establishment of the regulated markets has been useful in yet another way. It has cut across a long chain of the middlemen in the trade and secured to the producers the due value of their produce. The development of these markets along with that of Sangli has considerably increased the volume and the sphere of trade in various agricultural commodities in the district.

Besides the regulated markets, there are a number of places where weekly markets are held. When these markets began to be held is uncertain. They, however, have certainly served and are still serving the needs of local residents, coming especially from the rural areas. A gradual development of these markets with the variety of local weights and measures giving way to the standard ones is indeed an important and interesting commercial process that can find its due place in the present chapter.

SECTION I—BANKING AND FINANCE

BANKING AND FINANCE. Money-lenders.

The system of money-lending might be said to have originated with the introduction of coinage and currency in this country. The earlier forms of monetary dealings were not governed by any rule or law. The old Gazetteer has to say the following in regard to money-lenders and their activities.

"Of all forms of investment, money-lending is the commonest. Money-lending is practised in different degrees by members of almost every class. The leading professional money-lenders are Brahmans, Gujrat vanis, Marwar vanis, Jains, Lingayats, Marathas and Musalmans. Few live solely by money-lending. (The Brahmans are husbandmen, land proprietors and to a small extent, pensioned Government servants and pleaders. Gujrat, Lingayat and Marwar vanis are mostly traders and in some cases landholders). It was generally coupled by some such calling as trade or husbandry. Except

Marwar and Gujrat vanis the large money-lenders and land-holders from a regard to their good name and from kindly feeling treat their debtors with a certain amount of leniency. The small lenders cannot afford much kindness and treat their debtors with considerable strictness.

"Professional money-lenders may be roughly arranged under three chief classes, large, middle and small. The first or the substantial banker or *savkar* carries on a considerable business in bills or *hundis* and is careful to make advances only to persons of substance and on good security. The large landholders are often hopelessly in debt to large money-lenders. The lenders are generally careful to keep their debtors' heads just above water, in some cases from good feeling, but in most, because the process is more profitable than foreclosure. Most of the bankers' dealings are with other money-lenders. First class lending and trading firms keep the journal or *kird,* the ledger or *khatawani* and four bill books, an advice book of bills drawn by the firm, a register of the firms' acceptances in favour of third parties, a register in favour of the firm, and a rough memorandum book.

"The second or middle class of lenders form the greater portion of the most respectable lenders of the present day. They are those who with no great capital lend money in smaller sums and at higher rates than the first class but still carefully and on good security and who are glad to avoid the courts. This class in most cases keep the day book and ledger and have a capital of £1,000 to £ 3,000 (Rs. 10,000 to Rs. 30,000).

"The third class of small lenders have little or no capital. They borrow from wealthy firms and lend small sums to poor borrowers at extremely high rates. Lenders of this class keep the most meagre accounts. Their transactions are on mortgage, personal security and pawn. All of their agreements are on the hardest terms as the security is generally doubtful and the debtor and creditor are little removed from one another in neediness and dishonesty. The best of this class keep at least the accounts termed *pathani* or *tipane* or rough memorandum book and *khatawani* or ledger. The lowest and the host of unprofessional lenders keep no record of their transactions except the bonds which are employed on almost every occasion. The debtor is rarely furnished with a receipt.

"In fixing the terms of a loan every circumstance in the case has its weight. The urgency of the occasion and the condition and credit of the borrower make a vast difference on the rates charged. On easily convertible movable property and on good landed security large sums may be borrowed at six to twelve per cent a year. For smaller sums and in ordinary pawn transactions the rate ranges to eighteen per cent. On unsecured debts a husbandman of scanty credit has generally to pay 24 to 37½ or even 40 per cent. Mortgages are sometimes charged more heavily than personal bonds."

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

BANKING AND FINANCE.

Money-lenders.

The old District Gazetteer mentions that the borrowing class was composed of stipendiary Government servants, including those of the lower grades, traders and husbandmen. Of these the district and village hereditary Officers were nearly always in debt, their land in many cases being mortgaged for two to three generations. The bulk of the local traders were also poor and had to borrow to renew their stock on strict terms and high rates of interest. Middle class traders renewed their stock by pawning ornaments as security and paying ten to eighteen per cent interest per annum. But of all the borrowers, except the labouring class, husbandmen were the worse off. A significantly large portion of them raised loans by mortgaging land, houses or other immovable property or secured loan on personal security. Money was required to pay the Government assessment and to meet the extraordinary expenses of marriages and other family events. In a number of cases, they had also to borrow for subsistence except for the harvesting period. In some cases, the money-lenders, who were also shopkeepers, used to advance grain on the system known as *vadhi-didhi*, that is one and a half increase. This system sometimes pressed hard on indigent cultivators.

"It is the general opinion in the district that, however, much the district may have increased in trade, wealth and resources since it came under British rule in 1848, the indebtedness of the landholding classes is not less but greater than it then was."* The same situation further led to what is known as the agrarian riots or the Deccan riots.

This state of affairs did not continue for long, and the conditions of the agriculturists improved especially after the passing of the Deccan Agriculturists' Relief Act in 1879. The Act intended to reduce the aggregate indebtedness of the farmers and restrict the transfer of land from cultivators to money-lenders. Although this Act brought some relief to the debtors, especially the agriculturists who were in a majority among the borrowers, the money-lenders continued to be the source of trouble by the harsh and coercive methods they adopted in recovering their dues from their clients, such as '*girah kholai*', general manipulation of the accounts to the disadvantage of the debtor, insertion in written document of sums considerably in excess of money actually lent, taking of conditional sale deed in order to provide against possible evasion of payment and so on.

In order to free the agriculturists from their clutches and to check the malpractices the then Government of Bombay province passed on the 17th September 1947 an Act known as the Bombay Money-lenders' Act of 1946.

Bombay Money-lenders Act of 1946.

Under the provisions of this Act the State Government is authorised to appoint Registrar General, Registrars and Assistant Registrars of Money-lenders for the purposes of the Act and

*Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency, Vol. XIX, Satara (1885), p. 186.

 Money-lenders. *Bombay Money-lenders Act of 1946.*

define areas of their duties. Licensing and maintaining of cash-book and ledger in a prescribed form and manner was made compulsory for the money-lenders. The latter were further prohibited from molestation of a debtor while recovering loans. Molestation, in fact, was treated as an offence and was to be penalised. Arrest and imprisonment of a debtor who personally cultivated land and whose debts did not exceed Rs. 15,000 were also prohibited.

This Act was subsequently amended, the important amendments being the introduction of forms 4-A and 5-A and Pass Book system, provision of calculating interest on *katmiti* system and facilities to certain classes of money-lenders for submitting quarterly statements of loans to the Registrar of Money-lenders. Further amendment was effected in 1955 by which money-lending without licence was made a cognizable offence. In 1956, special measures were adopted for protecting backward class people. The Registrars and Assistant Registrars were instructed to take special care while checking accounts of money-lenders in respect of their transactions with backward class people.

Steps were also taken to induce money-lenders to advance more money. The structure of interest rates, too, was raised and came into operation from 5th July, 1952. Accordingly, the maximum rates of interest were raised from six per cent to nine per cent per annum on secured loans and from nine per cent to twelve per cent per annum on unsecured loans. In addition, money-lenders were allowed to charge a minimum interest of rupee one per debtor per year if the total amount of interest chargeable according to the prescribed rates in respect of loans advanced during the year amounted to less than a rupee.

In the following tables, is given statistical information about money-lenders, subsequent to the passing of the Bombay Money-lenders' Act of 1946, in the Sangli district.

TABLE No. 1

TRANSACTIONS OF MONEY-LENDERS FROM 1947-48 TO 1961-62, SANGLI DISTRICT

Year	Loans to traders	Loans to non-traders	Total	Number of money-lenders holding valid licences
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
1947-48	72,927	61,033	1,33,960	..
1948-49	1,27,832	1,06,854	2,34,686	87
1949-50	3,98,685 3,07,424	4,45,863 45,497	8,44,548 3,52,921	111

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Money-lenders.
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TABLE No. 1—*contd.*

Year	Loans to traders	Loans to non-traders	Total	Number of money-lenders holding valid licences
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
1950-51	6,58,610 40,08,709	6,98,370 65,975	13,56,980 40,74,684	88
1951-52	..	..	..	..
1952-53	5,74,284	8,16,596	13,90,880	72
1953-54	..	..	..	..
1954-55	3,70,148	6,47,617	10,17,765	110
1955-56	..	..	..	..
1956-57	..	..	..	..
1957-58	12,06,349	28,41,473	40,47,822	170
1958-59	12,56,401	27,93,981	40,50,382	193
1959-60	12,38,460	29,92,721	42,31,181	259
1960-61	7,42,083	27,54,568	34,96,351	256
1961-62	20,81,238	38,16,381	58,97,619	246

TABLE No. 2

TALUKA-WISE DISTRIBUTION OF MONEY-LENDERS, FROM 1957-58 TO 1961-62 IN SANGLI DISTRICT

Year	Miraj	Tasgaon	Jath	Walwa	Shirala	Khanapur	Total
1957-58 ..	96	18	6	30	2	18	170
1958-59 ..	92	32	4	31	2	32	193
1959-60 ..	149	43	5	35	2	35	259
1960-61 ..	148	35	5	33	2	33	256
1961-62 ..	142	33	5	32	2	32	246

Co-operative Movement.

The co-operative movement in India was an outcome of the economic distress caused to peasants, during the latter part of the 19th century. Formation of a co-operative society was first suggested by Frederik Nicholson as an antidote to rural indebtedness. The Famine Commission of 1901 also stressed the necessity of co-operative credit societies. A real beginning of the co-operative movement was, however, made when the Co-operative Credit Societies Act of 1904 was passed. It intended to

encourage thrift, self-help and co-operation amongst agriculturists, artisans and persons of limited means. Societies formed under the Act were given legal status and were authorised to raise funds to carry on business in a corporate capacity. They were classified as rural and urban; the rural societies were bound to accept the principle of unlimited liability while urban societies were given a free choice of limited or unlimited liability. This Act, however, was deficient in many respects. The Act of 1912 was, therefore, passed. It regularised certain practices of doubtful legal validity and made way for further expansion under proper safeguards. It replaced the old classification of societies by a new and more scientific classification of societies based on the nature of the availability of members. Societies, other than credit societies, were allowed to be formed. Registration of unions and federal bodies like central banks was expressly legalised and a number of minor modifications were introduced. At the same time the simplicity and elasticity of the old Act were preserved and a wide rule-making power was left to Provincial Government to enable them to develop on their own lines.

The present Sangli district, which was known as South Satara district, till 1960, came into being in 1949 following the merger of the former state of Sangli. At that time the co-operative movement in the district was in a preliminary state. It recorded rapid expansion in different spheres only during subsequent years. The following table indicates the growth of the co-operative movement from 1949-50 to 1960-61.

TABLE No. 3

GROWTH OF CO-OPERATIVE MOVEMENT IN SANGLI DISTRICT FROM 1949-50 TO 1960-61

Year	Number of societies	Number of members	Share capital	Members' deposits
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
			Rs.	Rs.
1949-50	351	23,483	6,35,366	3,42,545
1950-51	376	25,101	7,45,352	3,65,410
1951-52	365	65,677	37,50,822	3,46,720
1951-52 to 1955-56 ..	831	1,29,153	1,50,64,962	4,87,818
1956-57 to 1960-61 ..	876	1,39,896	1,93,01,570	5,33,945

Bank loan (outstanding)	Reserve and other funds	Working capital	Population covered	Percentage of villages covered
(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Per cent	Per cent
7,70,959	8,59,934	29,05,416	..	..
10,75,937	8,86,106	34,30,472	14	77
65,85,242	22,87,362	2,11,18,252	29·9	81·7
1,45,73,714	91,54,453	8,09,77,303	60	90
17,77,664	1,05,82,698	11,36,54,019	62	100

The co-operative movement, in the main, covers the growth of co-operative credit societies, multi-purpose societies, land development banks, non-agricultural societies and the central co-operative bank. The following is a description of the nature and growth of the co-operative societies in Sangli district.

Agricultural Co-operative Credit Societies.

These societies constitute the bulk of the co-operative credit societies. They raise funds through entrance fees, shares, deposits, loans and donations and supply to agriculturists short-term finance for meeting expenses on seed, manure, weeding, etc. and intermediate finance for the purchase of bullock-carts, iron implements, or for ceremonial expenses and for payment of old debts and carrying out schemes of land improvement on the basis of personal security of the borrower, mortgage of immovable property or of crops as collateral security.

The main object of the agricultural credit and primary societies is to educate its members in the value and use of money and to dispense controlled credit to them. In practice, however, it was found difficult to achieve the object when credit is divorced from supply and sale. With a view, therefore, to broaden the basis of the primary co-operative unit, multi-purpose societies were formed. The multi-purpose societies serve the economy in many ways. Starting with credit for current needs, they may get the old debts of its good members liquidated through a land-mortgage bank, introduce better business and better monetary returns by inducing its members to sell their produce co-operatively, ensure their growing improved varieties of crops, save on purchases by arranging for the purchase of their other needs jointly and at economical rates on an indent system without incurring any risk or liability, save litigation expenses by effective arbitration, improve the outturn of crops by consolidation of holdings, supply pure seeds and implements, supplement the income of its members by inducing them to take to subsidiary industries, introduce better-living measures by adopting bye-laws by common consent which will curtail ceremonial expenditure and remove insanitary habits, provide medical relief and so on.

The liability of members in case of a multi-purpose society is limited. In calculating the total amount of liability that a society can incur in the case of a multi-purpose society specified in that behalf by the Registrar by general or special order, a sum equal to the amounts borrowed by such society from a Central Financing Agency for giving advances on the security of agricultural produce is deducted from the amount of the actual liability of such a society. In all other matters such as constitution, raising of funds, granting of loans and rates of interest, multi-purpose societies follow the agricultural co-operative credit societies.

But in order to extend the scope of the agricultural credit or multi-purpose societies, they are being converted into what are known as *seva* societies, or service co-operatives. The latter are

Agricultural Co-operative Credit Societies.

being organised since 1959-60 following the recommendations contained in the policy resolution of the National Development Council. Generally the service co-operatives were to be organised in villages having population of about 1,000 to 1,200. In cases where the villages are small, service co-operatives were organised for a group of 2 or 3 villages. The operational area of service co-operatives was generally to be identical with that of a Gram Panchayat. The membership of these societies was kept universal which might prominently include cultivators, artisans and labourers. The object of these societies was to provide credit for agricultural operations, purchase of raw materials, etc. Among other activities, these societies were to pool the agricultural produce of members and arrange to sell it through marketing societies to which they were affiliated. These service co-operatives were to cover all economic activities of the rural population so as to create a cohesive, self-reliant and prosperous village community. These societies were to undertake distribution of seeds, manures, insecticides, etc., and also cater to the domestic needs of the village community. They had a limited liability and admitted all eligible persons above the age of 18. During 1956-57 the multi-purpose societies catered to the agricultural needs of the members to the extent of Rs. 71,55,692. The following statement indicates the working of primary agricultural societies including the multi-purpose and the *seva* societies in Sangli district.

Working of Multi-purpose Societies in Sangli district in 1956-57.

Number of Societies ...	415
Number of members ...	43,814
Share capital (Rs.) ...	21,20,648
Reserve and other funds (Rs.) ...	11,70,460
Loans outstanding (Rs.) ...	69,85,000
Total number of villages covered ...	452 of 81.9 per cent.

Farming Societies.

Co-operative farming is advocated by Government as one of the means to reduce the pressure of increased agricultural population on land and to avoid fragmentation of land.

There are four types of farming societies: —

(1) co-operative better farming societies,

(2) tenant farming societies,

(3) joint farming societies, and

(4) collective farming societies.

Of these, the work of the first two types of societies can be undertaken through service co-operatives established in every village and as such the present policy is not to encourage the organisation of these types of societies.

CHAPTER 6. Banking, Trade and Commerce. BANKING AND FINANCE. Co-operative Movement. *Farming Societies.*

In case of joint farming societies the objective is to bring together small pieces of land and to increase the production with joint efforts. In this type of society the ownership of the land is not disturbed. The valuation of the land given in pool by a particular member is done by the managing committee of the society and the member is paid income on the basis of the valuation of land.

As regards collective farming societies, persons who are not land owners come together and secure the land for cultivation in the name of the society on lease either from private landlord or from Government. All the members cultivate the land on a collective basis by bringing their labour and implements and get the return in proportion thereof.

By 1962, there were in Sangli district two better farming societies, ten collective farming societies and two joint farming societies. Besides, there were two crop protection societies at Ashta and Uran-Islampur, respectively. The working of each of these types of societies is given below:—

Better Farming Societies

		1960-61	1961-62
1.	Number of Societies ..	3	2
2.	Number of members ..	133	113
3.	Share capital (Rs.) ..	12,080	2,780
4.	Reserve and other funds (Rs.)	4,875	1,943
5.	Borrowing (Rs.) ..	24,936	437
6.	Losses (Rs.)	11	172
7.	Profits (Rs.)	358	..

As per the Government policy, these societies will not be continued under the farming group but will either be amalgamated with the *seva* societies or liquidated.

Co-operative Collective Farming Societies.

There were ten societies of this type in the district by 1962. Of these eight were formed by backward class people. The society at Digraj, although registered long back, could not function as it could not acquire suitable land for the purpose. The societies at Halli and Yednipani were formed on leased private lands while the rest of the societies were formed on Government waste land. During 1962, the society at Kharsing was given Rs. 10,058 as loan. In the case of many societies Government lands were made available on *Eksali* (one-year) or on short-term basis. The societies, therefore, could not undertake land development activities. Recently, however, the Government has instructed the Revenue Department to make the allotment of waste lands on permanent basis to these societies. This would enable them to increase their income and develop their lands by digging wells and by bunding or bringing more waste land under cultivation. The following table gives the working of these societies during 1960-61 and 1961-62.

TABLE No. 4

STATISTICS OF WORKING OF COLLECTIVE FARMING SOCIETIES, SANGLI DISTRICT

	1960-61	1961-62
(1) Number of societies	10	10
(2) Number of members	391	435
(3) Share capital (Rs.)	35,970	36,970
(4) Land in possession (acres)	2,676	2,698
(5) Area brought under cultivation (acres)	1,262	1,378
(6) Government loan (Rs.)	29,162	28,865
(7) Subsidies disbursed (Rs.)	71,220	72,278
(8) Reserve and other funds (Rs.)	16,176	24,330
(9) Working capital (Rs.)	1,57,414	1,71,055
(10) Total value of crops grown (Rs.)	45,604	39,476
(11) Profits (Rs.)	7,710	394
(12) Losses (Rs.)	1,443	8,974

By 1962, there were two joint farming societies in the district with 35 members. The working of these societies is given in the following table:—

TABLE No. 5

STATISTICS OF WORKING OF THE JOINT FARMING SOCIETIES SANGLI DISTRICT

	1960-61	1961-62
(1) Share capital—Individual (Rs.)	920	1,750
Government (Rs.)	4,000	4,000
(2) Land in possession (acres)	128	368
(3) Area brought under cultivation (acres)	102	976
(4) Government loan disbursed (Rs.)	..	..
(5) Subsidies (Rs.)	2,000	2,000
(6) Reserve and other funds (Rs.)	21	35
(7) Working capital (Rs.)	6,791	11,089
(8) Total value of crop (Rs.)	..	4,060
(9) Profits (Rs.)	..	..
(10) Losses (Rs.)	153	1,346

CHAPTER 6. Banking, Trade and Commerce. BANKING AND FINANCE. Co-operative Movement. *Co-operative Collective Farming Societies.*

It may be observed that till recently most of the co-operative farming societies were organised by landless labourers on Government lands or by those who were already cultivating Government lands but not by persons who owned lands. The low fertility of these lands and the lack of financial resources and the necessary know-how on the part of the cultivators resulted in making the farms less productive. However, these waste lands are now in a better condition with the organisation of co-operative societies.

Co-operative Marketing and Processing Societies.

These societies secure proper value for their members' produce and help the primary credit institutions by recovering their advances through the sale proceeds of the produce sold through them. Besides, these societies supply agricultural requisites such as fertilisers, improved seeds, farm implements and machinery required by the agriculturists. The co-operative purchase and sale institutions constitute the link between the primary credit societies and the central banks and these institutions are utilised for implementing the scheme of credit in kind and recovery of loans made to the agriculturists through the sale proceeds of their agricultural produce. Thus, there is the linking of agricultural credit with the marketing of the produce raised thereby. With a view to securing better price for the produce raised by the agriculturists, the processing societies process agricultural produce and earn better prices. For this it is necessary to have storage facilities and with this end in view the primary agricultural societies and purchase and sale unions have been given Government financial assistance in the form of loan and subsidy for construction of godowns of various types, *viz.*, small, medium and large size. Among the various schemes of co-operative development implemented in the State of Maharashtra in the second five-year plan, development of co-operative marketing is an important one. This scheme visualises organisation of new co-operative marketing societies and opening of branches of existing marketing societies in order to cover all the major and important minor market areas. Another important feature of the scheme is the construction of godowns by marketing and multi-purpose societies for furthering their marketing activities and thus providing an effective link of co-operative credit with the marketing of agricultural produce.

By the close of 1962, there were one District Purchase and Sale Union and five Taluka Purchase and Sale Unions in Sangli district. These unions arranged for sale of agricultural produce of the members of agricultural societies and credited the earnings to the District Central Co-operative Bank for repayment of loan to the extent of Rs. 66,80,748.27. The total purchases made by the union during 1962 amounted to Rs. 1,68,46,467 and the sales effected to Rs. 1,10,03,746.

The working of the District Purchase and Sale Union is given in the following table:—

TABLE No. 6

DISTRICT PURCHASE AND SALE UNION

	1960-61	1961-62
Number of societies	1	1
Number of members—		
(I) societies	75	83
(II) individuals	518	499
(III) nominal	..	2,207
Share capital (Rs.)	62,814	62,828
Reserve and other funds (Rs.)	2,57,706	3,39,665
Government loans (Rs.)	53,800	50,500
Other borrowings (Rs.)	1,75,421	63,211
Working capital (Rs.)	7,58,039	9,31,827
Sales as owners (Rs.)	22,436	53,30,495
Sales as agents (Rs.)	97,83,702	42,64,438
Commission earned (Rs.)	1,65,121	1,26,975
Profits (Rs.)	83,694	25,019

TABLE No. 7

WORKING OF THE TALUKA PURCHASE AND SALE UNION

	1960-61	1961-62
Number of societies	5	5
Number of members—		
(I) societies	397	414
(II) individuals	356	427
Share capital (Rs.)	1,42,534	1,48,691
Reserve and other funds (Rs.)	1,55,709	1,84,465
Borrowings (Rs.)	15,15,849	9,62,715
Working capital (Rs.)	21,93,489	13,32,771
Sales as owners (Rs.)	1,03,06,965	24,04,134
Sales as agents (Rs.)	30,68,647	84,31,155
Profits (Rs.)	36,687	28,634
Losses (Rs.)	4,000	9,037

Of these societies, the Varna Valley Co-operative Purchase and Sale Union Ltd., Islampur, is the biggest. It works as a stock-holder of iron and steel, a wholesaler for distribution of fertilisers and other manures like groundnut cake, manure mixtures, etc., and, besides serving as a commission agent for the agricultural produce, also caters to the members as purchasers and sellers of agricultural commodities.

CHAPTER 6. Banking, Trade and Commerce. BANKING AND FINANCE. Co-operative Movement. *Dairy Development Societies.*

There were 16 milk feeder societies in the district by 1961-62. Of these 13 societies supply milk to the Government Milk Scheme and two to the old milk union, while one functions independently. These societies together had a membership of 1,100, and their share capital and reserve and other funds amounted to Rs. 11,700 and Rs. 7,807, respectively, during the same year.

There is only one milk union working at Sangli. It had a membership of 13 societies and 205 individuals. During 1961-62, it had a share capital of Rs. 25,000 and a working capital of Rs. 56,536.

District Central Co-operative Bank, Sangli.

The Sangli District Central Co-operative Bank, Ltd. is the central financing agency of the district. It meets supplies all the primary and multi-purpose co-operative societies in the district, accepts surplus deposits from one society and transfers them to the other and thereby serves as a balancing centre. It collects funds by way of shares, reserves and other funds, deposits from societies and the general public and loans and overdrafts from banks. Share capital and reserve fund form the major portion of the owned capital on the basis of which deposits are tapped and loans are raised. The working funds of the bank are mostly derived from short-term deposits. Deposits from local bodies including municipalities are accepted on certain conditions. Besides deposits, the Central Bank can raise loans from the apex bank or the State Bank of India with whom it generally has overdraft arrangements.

The bank mainly finances the agricultural credit and other societies on the basis of the detailed statement of normal credits of members prepared by them. Members consist of both individuals and co-operative societies. The liability of the members of the bank is limited.

The District Central Co-operative Bank Ltd., Sangli has been continuously keeping pace with the developmental activities of the affiliated co-operative societies. The working and statistics of the banks are given in the following table:—

TABLE No. 8

STATISTICS AND WORKING OF THE DISTRICT CENTRAL CO-OPERATIVE BANK, SANGLI (1960)

Number of Members:—

Central Societies	...	3
Primary Societies	...	605
Individuals and others	...	765

TABLE No. 8—*contd.*

District Central Co-operative Bank, Sangli.

Ownership of Deposits (in Rs.)—		
Central Societies	...	17,000
Primary Societies	...	38,98,000
Individuals and others (members)	...	58,94,000
		Rs.
Paid-up capital	...	13,95,000
Statutory Reserve	...	1,61,000
Other Reserve	...	90,000
Total Borrowings	...	43,21,000
Total Liabilities	...	1,59,41,000
Total investments	...	27,57,000
Total loans outstanding	...	1,11,71,000
Total Assets	...	1,60,30,000
Loans from Government (outstanding)	...	2,01,000
Loans advanced	...	1,22,01,000
Loans recovered	...	92,01,000
Profit or loss	...	+89

Co-operative Consumers' Societies.

In order to check fluctuations in prices, it is necessary to have an agency that would undertake distribution of consumers' goods at reasonable prices and serve the people. During the War time, due to scarcity of consumers' goods, these societies proved a boon to the consumers. They were entrusted with the work of distribution of commodities like foodgrains, sugar, etc. made available to them by Government. By 1962 there were 12 consumers' co-operative societies in Sangli district. They had a membership of 1952 individuals. During the same year the societies effected purchases and sales worth Rs. 3,50,909 and Rs. 3,62,177, respectively, and earned a net profit of Rs. 2,700. Many of these societies, however, ceased to work after the lifting of controls.

Among the other consumers' societies, there are the electric supply societies at Vita and Tasgaon. The Vita Electric Supply Society also supplies electric power for irrigation purposes for which it was granted a loan of Rs. 1,19,671. The following table gives the working of these societies in 1961-62.

TABLE No. 9

WORKING OF ELECTRIC SUPPLY SOCIETIES

Serial No.	Particulars	Tasgaon Electric Supply Society	Vita Electric Supply Society
1	Number of members	567	227
2	Number of consumers	567	227
3	Share capital (Rs.)	75,425	38,725
4	Deposits (Rs.)	1,41,314	50,935
5	Cost of construction (Rs.)	3,49,254	2,03,074
6	Gross income from supply of electric energy (Rs.)	83,942	86,203

CHAPTER 6. Banking, Trade and Commerce. BANKING AND FINANCE. Co-operative Movement. *Co-operative Housing Societies.*

In view of the housing shortage the Government has been encouraging under its varied programmes the construction of new houses. For this purpose it also makes grants and subsidies to enable individuals and co-operatives to build new houses.

By 1961-62, there were three housing schemes in operation in this district—

(1) Low income-group housing scheme,

(2) General housing scheme, and

(3) Post-war reconstruction 219 schemes.

Under the low income group housing societies the loans for the construction of houses according to income groups were granted as given below:—

	Loans Rs.
(1) Yearly income up to Rs. 2,400 ...	5,000
(2) Yearly income between Rs. 2,401 and Rs. 3,600	6,000
(3) Yearly income between Rs. 3,601 and Rs. 4,800	7,000
(4) Yearly income between Rs. 4,801 and Rs. 6,000	8,000

The loans made available were subject to a maximum of 70 per cent of the cost of construction.

Subsidies and loans are granted to the backward class housing societies, towards the cost of construction in the cases of—

(1) *Vimukta Jatis* and Scheduled Tribes at 37½ per cent each, of the cost of construction.

(2) Subsidy to Scheduled Castes up to 25 per cent of the constructional cost and loan up to 50 per cent of the cost of construction.

(3) Loans to other backward classes up to 75 per cent of the cost of construction. (Loan made available is free of interest).

Subsidies are also given for secretarial cost and for purchase of lands. The former is granted per tenement for the first two years at the rate of Rs. 10 and thereafter at a rate of Rs. 5 per tenement till the entire Government loan is repaid. The latter is equal to the cost of land.

By the end of 1962 there were 38 housing societies formed under the backward class scheme and 34 societies formed under the general scheme, in Sangli district. The backward class co-operative housing scheme had constructed 268 tenements, while Societies under the post-war reconstruction scheme had undertaken construction only recently.

During 1961-62, four societies were granted Government loan of Rs. 55,990 and five societies were granted a subsidy of Rs. 28,515 towards construction of tenements and for managerial expenses. Under the general housing scheme 109 tenements were constructed by the end of 1962.

Co-operative Housing Societies.

The working of both the backward class and non-backward class co-operative housing societies during 1961-62 is given below:—

TABLE No. 10

WORKING OF HOUSING SOCIETIES IN SANGLI DISTRICT

Serial No.		Backward Class	Non-backward Class
1	Number of societies	38	34
2	Number of members	1,694	1,378
3	Share capital (Rs.)	47,707	85,689
4	Government loan (Rs.)	4,91,450	..
5	Other borrowings (Rs.)	1,07,354	3,36,407
6	Reserve and other funds (Rs.)	2,236	4,151
7	Working capital (Rs.)	6,48,744	4,16,230
8	Tenements constructed	268	109

Women's Co-operatives.

By 1961-62 there were three women's co-operatives in Sangli district. Together they had 242 members. Their share capital and reserve, and other funds stood at Rs. 5,115 and Rs. 712, respectively, whereas the net profits they earned came to about Rs. 1,324.

These societies were established with the object of meeting household requirements, conducting montessorie and training classes and so on.

Medical Aid Society.

This is an unique institution rendering medical assistance to the poor and needy. During 1961-62 it served 1,695 patients. It runs a maternity centre and participates in activities like family planning and training of midwives.

Paddy Pilot Scheme.

This scheme was introduced in Shirala Peta in the district from 1st April 1959. It was extended to the paddy growing area of Walwa taluka during the subsequent year. In this area there are 18 fertiliser centres through which fertilisers and manures are distributed by the Varna Valley Purchase and Sale Union. During 1961-62 a target of 10,000 acres was set by the Paddy Pilot Scheme. The State Bank of India sanctioned all the applications and 68 societies financed loans to the extent of Rs. 3,29,534 to the agriculturists. The production, as a result, increased by 1½ times by resorting to the Japanese method of paddy cultivation.

Taluka Development Boards.

There were seven taluka development boards by the beginning of 1961-62 in the district. They were mainly concerned with the work of carrying on propaganda for the adoption of improved

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methods and tools by the agriculturists and supplying them better quality seeds. With the establishment of the C.D.B. and N.E.S. blocks and arrangement of imparting agricultural information and advice for adopting better methods through the agency of the agriculturists and the *Gramsevaks,* the necessity of these boards for making agricultural propaganda diminished considerably. The purchase and sale unions and the multipurpose and *seva* societies now do the work of supplying improved seeds, manures and implements to the agriculturists more efficiently. As a result a number of taluka boards have become almost defunct.

District Co-operative Board.

This board carries on the work of co-operative education and propaganda. By 1962, the board had a total membership of 406 consisting of 379 societies and 27 individual members. It conducted training classes for its members and secretaries and also held *'shibirs'* of co-operative workers, celebrated co-operative weeks and held conferences of field workers.

Land Development Bank.

A primary land mortgage bank* now functions in almost every district. The land mortgage bank provides for the long-term needs of the cultivators, such as debt redemption, investment on profitable improvements, etc. An ordinary co-operative society or commercial bank cannot perform these functions as it finds difficult to lock up its funds for a very long time. Besides, where land is the main security of a loan, as in the case of land mortgage banks, it requires the services of expert assessors of the value of land. Land mortgage banks are specially suited for this purpose.

In this district the Satara District Co-operative Land Mortgage Bank, Ltd., Karad, was for a very long time meeting the requirements of the people. The Sangli District Co-operative Land Mortgage Bank was registered in Sangli district in 1962. Since then a new era opened in regard to the financing of long time needs of the agriculturists The old commitments of the Satara District Land Mortgage Bank were then transferred to the Sangli District Land Mortgage Bank. This bank has now two branches, one at Vita and the other at Jath, and the bank noted all-round progress in its activities. Thus during 1962. the bank advanced even *tagai* loans to the tune of Rs. 24,51,302 to agriculturists for digging of wells and purchase of engines and pumping sets.

The following table indicates the statistics of the working of the land mortgage bank in Sangli district:—

TABLE No. 11

STATISTICS AND WORKING OF THE DISTRICT CO-OPERATIVE LAND MORTGAGE BANK, SANGLI, FOR 1962-63

Members.

Individuals—6,162.

Societies—71.

*This bank is now known as the Land Development Bank.

TABLE No. 11—*contd.*

Share capital—Rs. 25,00,000.
Paid up capital—Rs. 5,10,275.
Working capital—Rs. 1,10,75,000.
Loans—Rs. 49,79,150.
Recoveries—62 per cent.
Profit—Rs. 31,963.

Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act.

Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act.—After 1901 there was a rise in the hereditary indebtedness of the cultivators in the then Bombay Province. The indebtedness of the landholding classes was much greater in 1948 than it was before. The provisions of the Civil Code which was passed in 1877 had greatly facilitated the lender in recovering his debts and the Limitation Act of 1869, though it was passed in the interest of the debtors with the object of relieving them from the burden of old and ancestral debts, was turned by the lenders to their own advantage. The bitterness caused by the working of the Limitation Act was intensified by the decrease in the value of land which accompanied the fall of produce prices in 1873 and 1874. Creditors finding a fall in their security values pressed their debtors which resulted in harassment to them and the subsequent agrarian riots of 1873-74. Such riots took place in Tasgaon and Khanapur in Sangli district during the same year. But the agrarian riots of 1875 were not so common in the district as in Poona and Ahmednagar, perhaps due to the better conditions of the cultivators. There was only a single instance of it in the village Kokrud in the Shirala taluka.

On the report of the Deccan Riots Commission, Satara was included in the area to which the Deccan Agriculturists Relief Act (XVII of 1879) was applied. Under the provisions of the Act no land could be sold in execution of a decree unless specifically pledged, the registration of all lands was made compulsory, and every transaction was to be investigated independently of the bond. The courts had the power to relieve the debtor by decreasing payments by instalments, while arbitration was encouraged by the system of village *munsifs* and conciliators. The most striking result of the Act was the extraordinary check to litigation. The Act, in short, was intended to reduce the aggregate indebtedness of the farmers and restrict the transfer of land from cultivators to money-lenders. This Act was later repealed and replaced by the Bombay Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act (XVIII) of 1939. Compulsory scaling down of debts and subsequent arrangement for the repayment of the adjusted amounts in manageable instalments constitute the essence of the scheme of this Act.

Certain other changes were also introduced by this Act. The term 'agriculturists' as defined in the Deccan Agriculturists Relief Act, 1879, was found to be actually bringing into its fold

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not only genuine agriculturists of the cultivating class but also pseudo-agriculturists who merely happened to own land but did not cultivate it.

As against this, the term 'debtor' as defined in the Bombay Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act was more definite. Under this Act 'debtor' meant an indebted person who was a holder of land and who cultivated land personally. Further, the income of the debtor from sources other than agriculture must not exceed 33 per cent of his total annual income or Rs. 500 whichever was greater. Income from land cultivated by tenants was regarded as non-agricultural income under the Act.

The Act was amended in 1945 and again in 1947 with a view to bringing relief to agricultural debtors and for remedying certain other defects which the working of the Act had brought to light. The Debt Adjustment Boards were dissolved and the administration of the Act was entrusted to civil courts. The latter, however, were not entitled to administer such cases where the total amount of debts due from the debtor was more than Rs. 15,000. In case of two or more applications for adjustment of debts it was decided to consolidate them. According to the provisions of clause (iv) of sub-section (2) of section 32, the rate of interest in case of awards was not to exceed 6 per cent per annum or such lower rate as might be notified in that behalf by the State Government or the rate agreed upon between the parties when the debt was originally incurred or the rate allowed by the decree in respect of such debts, whichever was lower. In 1948-49 Government fixed four per cent per annum as the rate of interest for purposes of awards made under section 32 (2) of the Act. In case of awards passed in favour of Land Mortgage Banks under section 33, the banks were entitled to recover the amount due to them from the debtor together with interest at such rate as the State Government might notify. Six per cent was the rate fixed by Government for the purposes of awards made under section 33 (3). However, this was raised to 7¼ per cent in 1953-54 by a Government notification, dated the 12th October 1953.

While making the adjustments the mode of taking accounts was also decided. Accordingly, separate accounts of principal and interest were to be taken. In the account of the principal only such money was to be debited to the debtor as would from time to time have been actually received by him or on his account from the creditor and the price of goods, if any, sold to him by the creditor. In the accounts of principal and interest the amounts, if any, due for principal (including costs) and interest, respectively under any decree or order passed by a competent court in respect of any debt was to be debited. The following statements show the administration of the Bombay Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act of 1947 in Sangli district.

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TABLE No. 12

STATEMENT SHOWING THE ADMINISTRATION OF BOMBAY AGRICULTURAL DEBTORS' RELIEF ACT, 1947, IN SANGLI DISTRICT

Year	Number of applications disposed of				Amount involved in applications as shown in columns				Amount by which debts are reduced
	On preliminary issues	By adjudicating debtors as insolvent	By passing awards	For other reasons	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
					Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1950-51	2,182	9	6,584	12,273	9,25,596	10,135	22,14,379	23,84,585	7,33,340
1951-52	2,774	13	3,839	19,219	19,93,138	3,801	19,82,724	58,22,609	7,05,755
1952-53	1,630	..	2,419	5,315	17,04,384	..	14,16,178	45,11,600	6,71,626
1953-54	996	10	1,116	2,191	10,42,084	1,845	25,59,480	2,21,404	4,01,734
1954-55	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
1955-56	140	1	285	271	2,14,610	..	3,39,117	2,56,821	2,43,447
1958-59	32	..	108	127	55,279·77	..	1,16,570·15	96,516·14	1,02,777·00

TABLE No. 13.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE ADMINISTRATION OF BOMBAY AGRICULTURAL DEBTORS' RELIEF ACT, 1947, IN SANGLI DISTRICT

Year	Number of applications received from debtors and creditors			Number of applications withdrawn by		Amount involved in applications involving	
	Section 4 (1)	Section 9	Section 19	Debtors	Creditors	Money claims	Sale mortgage transactions
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
						Rs.	Rs.
1950-51	2,226	52	241	28	7	10,66,320	2,03,279
1951-52	1,338	..	120	19	8	19,37,902	7,86,738
1952-53	286	..	46	8	2	99,179	86,562
1953-54	100	..	136	4	1	1,10,517	1,76,765
1954-55	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
1955-56	9	..	3	..	..	81,962	1,55,596
1956-57	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
1957-58	34	..	15	..	..	40,100·95	1,16,804·19

The main purpose underlying the enactment of the Act, *viz.*, to bring down the inflated volume of the debts of the agriculturists reasonably within the limits of their repaying capacity and to make them entirely free from the burden of debts by making arrangements for payment of such debts in easy instalments, has been achieved to a considerable extent. The promulgation and the administration of this Act has relieved the heavy and long-standing burden of debt of the agriculturists in the district.

Crop Finance.

It was found that soon after the application of the debt relief legislation there was shortage of credit facilities. It was not surprising that the creditor chafing under present 'losses' took a gloomy view of future risks. A more specific problem was the adjusted debtor himself; for him it was not so much a case of contraction as of elimination of all private credit. The very process of adjustment involved so many restrictions on the alienability of his property that no lending agencies could be expected to be disposed favourably towards him. Meanwhile the adjusted debtor would have to raise crops and before that to raise money for the crops.

The Government realising these difficulties of the debtors instituted a system of crop or seasonal finance which was intended to fill in the vacuum in the credit facilities caused mainly by legislation regarding debt relief, money-lending and land tenure passed a few years back.

The provision for crop finance was initially made through the principal agencies of (1) co-operative societies, (2) Collector (*tagai* loans), (3) grain depots, and (4) authorised money-lenders.

As far as possible, however, the crop or seasonal finance was being advanced through the co-operative societies to the persons, who were parties to the proceedings as awards under the Bombay Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act. The advances by way of crop or seasonal finance are secured by the crops grown by debtors. These advances are essentially short-term in character and their chief object is to finance at reasonable rates of interest agricultural operations connected with the raising of crops. The following table indicates the position as regards advances of crop or seasonal finance through co-operative societies in Sangli district during the years from 1950-51 to 1955-56 and 1958-59.

TABLE No. 14

STATEMENT SHOWING ADVANCES OF CROP OR SEASONAL FINANCE THROUGH CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES IN SANGLI DISTRICT

Year	Number of applications received	Amount of finance applied for	Amount advanced	Amount recovered	Amount outstanding at the end of the year	Authorised	Unauthorised	Amount of bad debts	Amount of losses written off	Amount of Government guarantee
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1950-51	2,645	7,68,051	3,92,506	3,15,646	4,11,643	2,515	84,489	..	..	..
1951-52	2,997	9,07,356	4,87,256	3,78,634	5,20,265	..	1,40,648	..	..	..
1952-53	2,813	7,91,170	5,14,159	4,56,850	5,77,574	..	1,62,549	..	..	..
1953-54	3,064	8,05,713	5,32,588	48,131	6,28,848	..	1,38,357	..	..	10,037
1954-55	2,978	8,54,548	4,27,006	4,99,642	6,56,212	..	88,297	..	..	18,560
1955-56	2,620	8,11,240	5,86,003	5,49,105	6,93,110	9,919	1,54,528	..	..	3,770
1958-59	2,288	3,58,520	3,58,520	3,59,432	3,10,317	..	..	..	..	..

Though joint-stock banking as understood to-day did not function in the past, there were a number of bankers carrying out banking operations in the country. The Old Gazetteer of Kolhapur district mentions 24 such bankers in Sangli, some of whom also granted bills of exchange or *hundis* on Bombay, Poona and other large towns. Even in the early decades of this century joint-stock banking was not initiated in the district as the new banks such as the Central Bank, the Bank of Baroda, the Bank of Mysore restricted their functioning to big cities. The earliest bank in the district, *viz.*, the Sangli Bank, Ltd., was established in 1916. There was, however, no remarkable progress in the field of banking in this district till the outbreak of the World War II in 1939. The latter proved a boon to the banking activity in the country. For, a number of banks were then started and these engaged themselves in lucrative business. But the partition of the country in 1947 soon spelled a temporary dislocation in the economy on account of which the number of banks declined considerably. This resulted in the weeding out of many uneconomic units in the country.

The Banking Companies Act of 1949 was enacted mainly to protect the interest of the depositors and to foster the growth of banking on sound lines. It was uniformly applied to the joint-stock banks. The main provisions of the Act are as follows:—

(1) No bank should engage itself in any kind of trade activity. (2) A banking company with only one place of business must have paid-up capital and reserves of not less than Rs. 50,000 in aggregate value. (3) A banking company must maintain in cash, gold or unencumbered approved securities, valued at current market, an amount which shall not be less than 20 per cent of the total of its time and demand liabilities in India. Further, the banking company has to maintain assets in India not less than 75 per cent of its demand and time liabilities. (4) The banking company should keep in cash with itself or in an account with the Reserve Bank a sum equivalent to at least 2 per cent of its time liabilities and 5 per cent of its demand liabilities. (5) A bank should have a reserve fund to which should be transferred every year 20 per cent of its profits annually till the fund is equal to the paid-up capital. (6) The banking company should not advance loans on the security of its own shares. (7) The banking company can carry out work only after obtaining licence from the Reserve Bank and follow policy of their advances determined by the Reserve Bank. (8) No office be opened without Reserve Bank's permission and (9) Reserve Bank is authorised to inspect any banking company.

In 1950, the Banking Companies Act was further amended with the result that the Reserve Bank was empowered to regulate the opening of branches by Indian banks in foreign countries, to approve securities to be considered as assets of member banks against their demand or time liabilities, and to facilitate and simplify the procedure for the amalgamation of banking companies.

CHAPTER 6. — Banking, Trade and Commerce. BANKING AND FINANCE. Joint-stock Banks.

The following statement gives the names and the location of the joint-stock banks existing in Sangli district:—

Serial No. (1)	Name of the Bank (2)	Branches (3)	Place (4)
1	State Bank of India	2	Sangli, Miraj
2	Punjab National Bank	1	Sangli
3	Sangli Bank	1	Sangli
*4	New Citizen Bank of India	2	Sangli, Miraj
5	Bank of Poona	1	Sangli
6	Canara Industrial Bank	1	Sangli
7	Central Bank of India	1	Sangli
8	Miraj State Bank	2	Sangli, Miraj
9	Bank of Maharashtra	1	Sangli

The State Bank of India is the most important bank because, besides its usual banking activities, it conducts, as an agent of the Reserve Bank of India, Government business and affords remittance and exchange facilities to the local banks and the public. It also affords special facilities, such as, (1) medium term finance, (2) special credit transfer system, (3) safe custody of articles, (4) financial assistance to small-scale industries, (5) traveller's cheques, and so on. They are briefly described below:—

Medium term Finance.

It is given to industrial concerns for expanding their existing units and for establishing new units. The advances made by the bank against suitable and adequate security, including the security of immovable property are to be repaid within seven years.

Financial assistance to small-scale industries.

Under this scheme advances are made to meet practically all the requirements of the small-scale industries. Normally the rate of interest charged is less than 6½ per cent.

Special credit transfer system.

This scheme enables a personal deposit holder (current and savings) to transfer money paid in cash up to Rs. 1,000 a day from any branch of the bank to his account.

Safe custody.

Safe custody is provided for documents and other articles of value such as wills, title deeds, insurance policies, jewellery and other personal effects at moderate charges.

Traveller's cheques.

The bank issues its own rupee travellers cheques in denominations of Rs. 50 and Rs. 100 which are encashable at any of its offices in India. They provide a convenient form of carrying cash without any risk of loss or theft while travelling.

* The bank is now merged with the Bank of Baroda.

Joint-stock Banks.

Whereas the State Bank of India acts as the Government's Bank, the other joint-stock banks in the district are engaged in activities mainly of a commercial nature. Their main object consists in carrying on banking business including the borrowing, raising and lending or advancing money against different types of securities, accounts, policies, bonds, *hundis*, bills, etc., granting and issuing letters of credit, and circular notes; dealing in stocks, funds, bonds, debentures, investments, etc., receiving money and valuables on deposit or for safe custody or otherwise collecting and transmitting money and securities, managing of property, and transacting all kinds of agency business. In short, the main business of the banks is to attract deposits—current, fixed and savings—and to make available to their clientele the requisite finance.

The balance sheet of a bank is usually divided into two parts, the assets and the liabilities. The former consists of cash on hand and with banks, investments (including debentures, shares not quoted on stock exchange), advances, bills receivable, acceptances, premises and furniture, non-banking assets, etc. The latter. on the other hand, consists of deposits and other accounts, borrowings from other banking companies, bills payable, acceptances, etc. The average of month-end deposits of these banks in the half-year July-December 1961 were to the tune of Rs. 3,35,00,000 as per the estimates of the Reserve Bank of India.

The following tables give the deposits owned by the banks in the Sangli district as well as an analysis of their advances according to security and purpose.

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TABLE No. 15

OWNERSHIP OF DEPOSITS OF THE JOINT-STOCK BANKS IN SANGLI DISTRICT IN THE YEAR 1955

Total deposits	Fixed deposits		Current account deposits		Saving deposits		Other deposits		Total deposits	
	No. of accounts	Amount	No. of accounts	Amount	No. of accounts	Amount	No. of accounts	Amount	No. of accounts	Amount
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.
1. Manufacturing Concerns.	..	..	1,138	13,12,615	..	..	1	1,19,500	1,139	14,32,115
2. Trading Concerns ..	..	..	632	1,02,60,973	..	..	6	87,000	638	1,03,47,973
3. Personal	1,595	89,33,431	802	*20,32,944	16,943	*1,39,79,411	104	2,85,468	19,444	2,52,31,254
4. Banking Companies	..	..	44	6,01,230	..	..	..	..	44	6,01,230
5. Business	704	*1,18,93,000	..	..	29	20,689	..	..	733	1,19,13,689
6. Public Institutions and Trusts.	2	9,000	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	9,000
7. Others	81	81,67,990	92	3,72,362	115	17,13,107	18	10,193	306	1,02,63,652
Total ..	2,382	2,90,03,421	2,708	1,45,80,124	17,087	1,57,13,207	129	5,02,161	22,306	5,97,98,913

*Accounts of less than Rs. 500 are included in this amount.

TABLE No. 16

OWNERSHIP OF DEPOSITS OF THE JOINT-STOCK BANKS IN SANGLI DISTRICT IN 1957

Total deposits	Fixed deposits		Current account deposits		Saving deposits		Other deposits		Total deposits	
	No. of accounts	Amount	No. of accounts	Amount	No. of accounts	Amount	No. of accounts	Amount	No. of accounts	Amount
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.
1. Manufacturing concerns.	..	..	79	9,17,057	..	..	3	2,00,000	82	11,17,057
2. Trading concerns..	..	..	1,022	*1,28,82,047	..	..	8	1,55,000	1,030	1,30,37,047
3. Personal	2,344	*11,86,33,374	773	29,34,822	19,489	*1,64,11,129	140	8,70,938	22,746	13,88,50,263
4. Banking companies	..	..	29	34,980	..	..	2	50,000	31	84,980
5. Business	212	1,61,52,800	..	..	65	22,024	..	..	277	1,61,74,824
6. Public Institutions and Trusts.	16	1,80,30,000	2	68,900·00	..	..	..	..	18	2,49,20,000
7. Others	57	19,73,100	123	9,06,659	201	50,90,649	18	20,738	399	79,91,146
Total ..	2,629	15,47,89,274	2,028	2,45,65,565	19,755	2,15,23,802	171	12,96,676	24,583	20,21,75,317

*Accounts of less than Rs. 500 are included in this amount.

TABLE No. 17

ANALYSIS OF ADVANCES OF SCHEDULED AND NON-SCHEDULED BANKS ACCORDING TO PURPOSE, DISTRICT SANGLI

	Year ended 1955		Year ended 1957	
	Number of accounts	Amount	Number of accounts	Amount
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
		Rs.		Rs.
I. Industry	7	1,10,695·31	12	10,81,138·00
II Commerce	355	14,19,658·96	332	15,00,085·97
III Agriculture ..	..	..	..	..
IV Personal and Professional	156	2,37,780·61	220	2,96,540·00
V. All others .	112	1,13,725·81	31	1,93,064·13
Total .	630	18,81,860·69	595	30,70.828 10

TABLE No. 18

ADVANCES OF ALL SCHEDULED BANKS IN SANGLI DISTRICT ACCORDING TO SECURITY

(In thousands of Rs.)

Security	Sangli		
	March 25, 1960	March 31, 1961	March 30, 1962
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
I. **Food Articles—**			
Paddy and Rice— (Total 1+2)	1,25	8	6,31
1. To rice mills	23	..	..
2. To others	1,02	8	6,31
Wheat—			
(Total 3+4)	6	..	1
3. To flour mills	..	..	..
4. To others	6	..	1
5. Gram	10	3	..
6. Other grains and pulses (including Jowar, Bajra and maize).	5,25	35	2,37

TABLE No. 18—*contd.*

(In thousands of Rs.)

Security	Sangli		
	March 25, 1960	March 31, 1961	March 30, 1962
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Sugar and Gul—			
(Total 7+8)	27,64	31,01	60,31
7. To sugar factories	20,20	28,09	54,82
8. To others	7,44	2,92	5,49
9. Vegetable oil including vanaspati	19	2	10
II. Industrial raw materials—			
10. Groundnut	3,47	4,05	4,49
11. Other oilseeds	5	..	22
Cotton and Kapas—			
(Total 12+13+14)	..	..	2,81
12. To Cotton textile Mills ..	..	..	..
13. To ginning factories	..	..	..
14. To others	..	..	2,81
15 Raw jute	..	..	..
16. Hides and skins	2,22	1,14	1,81
III. Plantation Products—			
17. Tea	54	73	1,15
18. Cashewnuts	..	..	..
19. Pepper and other spices.. ..	24,20	19,09	33,84
20. Coffee	..	..	..
IV. Manufactures and Minerals—			
Cotton Textiles (including yarn)—			
(Total 21+22)	2,81	5,90	12,61
21. To mills	..	..	1,61
22. To others	2,81	5,90	11,01
23. Jute textiles	..	..	..
24. Other textiles (silk, art silk, woollen, etc.).	8	..	..
25. Iron, steel and engineering products.	1,83	2,88	4,56

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

BANKING AND FINANCE.

Joint-stock Banks.

TABLE No. 18—*contd.*

(In thousands of Rs.)

Security	Sangli		
	March 25, 1960	March 31, 1961	March 30, 1962
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
26. Other metals and metal products	31	75	85
27. Coal, manganese, mica and other minerals and mineral oils.	..	..	..
28. Chemicals, dyes, paints, drugs and pharmaceuticals.	10	11	54
29. Electrical goods	..	..	22
30. Rubber and rubber products ..	20	8	42
31. Other manufactured goods ..	..	8	58
V. Other securities—			
32. Real estate	..	46	1,48
33. Gold and silver bullion	7,14	4,59	28
34. Gold and silver ornaments ..	..	5,32	20,90
35. Fixed deposits	4,05	3,99	5,65
36 Government and other trustee securities.	8,36	16,66	22,23
Shares of Joint-stock companies—			
(Total 37+38)	1,20	1,74	4,11
37. To stock and share brokers and dealers.	23	..	..
38 To others	97	1,74	4,11
39. Debentures of joint-stock companies.	..	..	..
40. Assets of industrial concerns, fixed or floating (other than those specified under above categories).	97	97	3,22
41. Other secured advances not mentioned above.	10,76	7,68	25,46
42. Composite advance ..	63	62	11,22
Total Secured Advances—			
(Total 1 to 42)	99,31	1,08,41	2,27,76

Insurance

The Life Insurance Corporation was established by the Government of India on 1st September 1956, after passing the Life Insurance Corporation Act, 1956. The Act nationalised the business of life insurance and made the Corporation the only

agency for carrying on life insurance business in the whole of India. General insurance which includes fire, marine, accident and other insurance is, however, kept open to private enterprise. Accordingly, most of the former insurance companies and societies which used to transact all insurance business including life, switched over entirely to general insurance.

Under the new organisational and administrative set up of the Life Insurance Corporation, Sangli district is placed under the territorial jurisdiction of the Satara Division of the Western Zone.

The total life insurance business done in the district is given below:—

INSURANCE STATISTICS

SANGLI DISTRICT

Serial No.	Year		No. of Insurance policies issued	Amount insured
(1)	(2)		(3)	(4)
				Rs.
1	1957-58	..	1,878	38,72,000
2	1958-59	..	1,921	42,12,000
3	1959-60	..	3,000	69,67,000
4	1960-61	..	3,598	86,00,000
5	1961-62	..	3,583	85,00,000
6	1962-63	..	4,499	1,22,03,800
7	1963-64	..	5,136	1,59,52,700

State's Financial Assistance to Agriculture.

The practice of granting financial assistance to the agriculturists was in existence even before the establishment of British rule in India and such assistance was extended especially during famine years. The British Government adopted the system that was already prevalent and gave it a legal status. The agriculturists' riots that broke out in several districts of the Deccan only helped to expedite the legislation in that regard.

The Land Improvement Loans Act of 1883 and the Agriculturist Loans Act of 1884 provide the legal framework under which *tagai* loans are granted to the needy agriculturists. The former Act is broadly concerned with the long-term finance while the latter accommodates persons with short-term financial needs.

Loans under Land Improvement Loans Act.

Loans under Land Improvement Loans Act, 1883.—Loans under this Act are granted to cultivators for works of improvement on land such as irrigation, drainage, reclamation from

CHAPTER 6. Banking, Trade and Commerce. BANKING AND FINANCE. State's Financial Assistance to Agriculture *Loans under Land Improvement Loans Act.*

rivers or protection from floods, soil erosion, etc. The Collector, Prant Officer, Mamlatdar or Mahalkari is authorised to grant loans up to Rs. 7,500, Rs. 2,500, Rs. 2,500 and Rs. 1,000, respectively. The interest rate for these loans is generally 8½ per cent but in particular cases a reduced rate or nominal interest is charged if the Collector so recommends.

As regards security it was provided that the grantor, whoever he may be, had to satisfy himself as to the sufficiency of it with a margin of safety. Movable property was rarely accepted as security. Personal security was accepted if the person was solvent. The security of immovable property was invariably demanded where the amount of loan applied for was large.

Loans under the Agriculturist Loans Act of 1884 could be granted to holders of arable lands for purchase of seeds, fodder, cattle, agricultural implements, rebuilding the destroyed houses, maintenance of cultivators till the harvest and so on. As in the case of the Land Improvement Loans Act, so also in case of Agriculturist Loans Act, the Collector, the Prant Officer or the Mamlatdar is authorised to grant loans up to specified limits. Loans above Rs. 2,500 have to be referred to Government for approval. The interest to be charged was again at 8½ per cent. The conditions of security were the same as those under the Land Improvement Loans Act of 1883.

With a view to improving the agricultural conditions it was decided to extend the scheme of granting financial aid still further. The system of distribution of the *tagai* loans, therefore, was changed and the co-operative societies, the revenue office and the Zilla Parishad were authorised to give financial assistance to the agriculturist. The amounts of assistance also have substantially increased so as to cover a larger coterie of clients.

During the First Five-Year Plan, cultivators were encouraged by grant of liberal *tagai* loans to construct new wells and repair old wells. As a result 308 new wells were constructed and 252 old wells were repaired in the district. The scheme was continued under the Second Five-Year Plan. During 1956-57, 45 new wells were constructed and 23 old wells were repaired. From 1957-58, it was decided to give a further incentive of a subsidy to the extent of 25 per cent of the cost of sinking new wells, in order to step up the tempo of this activity.

The Second Plan also provided for giving *tagai* loans to cultivators for purchase of oil engines and pumps of indigenous make. During the First Plan period, *tagai* loans of Rs. 2,98,964 were granted to cultivators for purchase of 208 pumping sets. During the Second Plan a similar amount was granted to them for the same purpose.

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

BANKING AND FINANCE.

Financial Assistance to Industries.

The industrial development in Sangli district is of recent origin. In the last decades of the 19th century there were some smallscale and cottage industries in the district, but they did not receive any financial a'sistance from the State. A number of schemes are now afoot under which such assistance is extended especially to small units. The following are statistics of assistance given to individual artisans and their co-operatives in the district since 1956-57:--

Purpose (1)	Amount (in Rs.) (2)		
(i) Rebate	45,504	66,577	65,914
(ii) Recurring grant to sale depots.	1,875	8,778	5,273
(iii) Recurring grant to dye-house.	..	1,399	853
(iv) Grant for sample books	..	..	60
(v) Grant for automatic take-up motion.	..	..	70
(vi) Grant for pedal looms ..	..	9,000	..

GRANT OF MANAGEMENT EXPENSES TO THE INDUSTRIAL CO-OPERATIVES

Year (1)	No. of societies (2)	Amount disbursed (3)
		Rs.
1951-52	7	2,509
1952-53	2	2,862
1953-54	9	7,647
1954-55	6	4,019
1955-56	3	661
1956-57	3	1,305
1957-58	3	576
1958-59	4	1,171

Grant to Labour Contract Societies under the Second Five-Year Plan: An amount of Rs. 840 was granted to two societies in 1958-59.

Financial assistance to village industries is given by the Maharashtra State Village Industries Board which is entrusted with the task of organising village industries like khadi, bee-keeping, palm *gul*, hand-made paper, rope making, etc. The programmes

CHAPTER 6. Banking, Trade and Commerce. BANKING AND FINANCE. Financial Assistance to Industries.

of development of these industries are framed and implemented in consultation with and with the financial participation of the All India Khadi and Village Industries Commission. The State Government makes grants to the Board which conducts various training-*cum*-production centres for continuing and expanding its activities The details of the assistance under the First and the Second Five-Year Plans are given below.

Loans and subsidies granted to industrial co-operatives during the First Five-Year Plan:—

Name of the Society	*Loan* Rs.	*Subsidy* Rs.
Ashta Gramodyog Sahakari Society, Ltd. ..	7,000	2,000
Walwa Taluka Labourers' Co-operative Society, Ltd., Islampur.	3,000	..
Yelur Group Telotpadak Sahakari Society, Ltd.	5,000	..
Panepat Karagir Sahakari Utpadak Society, Umadi	3,000	500
Sangli Charmakar Utpadak Sahakari Society, Ltd., Sangli.	2,850	..
Sarvodaya Vadar Samaj Sahakari Society, Ltd., Sangli.	5,000	..
Mahila Audyogik Sahakari Society, Ltd., Sangli,	2,524	112
Miraj Tanners Co-operative Society, Ltd., -		
(*a*) for tools and equipment ..	1,575	525
(*b*) for construction of shed ..	2,587·50	862·50

As a result of the sustained efforts of the Government, 44 industrial co-operatives were organised in this district by the end of the First Five-Year Plan.

During the Second Five-Year Plan it was proposed to organise 38 industrial co-operative societies of various categories. In 1956-57 and 1957-58, nine societies were organised and granted financial assistance by way of investment in their share capital, subsidies towards managerial expenses and loans and subsidies for purchase of equipment. Thus, assistance amounting to Rs. 3.16 lakhs, was given to the following industries:—

Name of the Industry	*Loan* (Rs.)	*Subsidy* (Rs.)
Hand-pounding of paddy	2,000	..
Hand Soap	4,187	..
Leather and tanning	200	per pit.
Village oil *ghanis*	3,750 (for purchase of oil engine, improved equipment and management charges).	..

Similarly, under the handloom relief scheme Rs. 50,000 were allotted for working of 250 handlooms in the district during the First Five-Year Plan. Of this Rs. 10,000 and Rs. 6,300 were sanctioned to the handloom societies at Vita and Jadarboblad, respectively.

The commencement of the small saving scheme dates as far back as World War I, when the then Government had issued Postal Cash Certificates having a maturity period of five years. This scheme continued for some time in the post-war years. During the World War II Government started the scheme of Post-office National Savings Certificates in 1943, with a view to counteract inflation by withdrawing a part of increased purchasing power from the people, and also to serve as an additional source of war finance. After Independence small savings were regarded as one of the important schemes for raising money internally to finance the ambitious Five-Year Plans of the country.

The various categories of small savings are given below:—

(1) Post-office Savings Bank Deposits,

(2) Twelve-year National Plan Savings Certificates,

(3) Ten-year Treasury Savings Deposit Certificates,

(4) Fifteen-year Annuity Certificates and

(5) Cumulative Time Deposit Scheme.

Of these the Post-office Savings Bank Deposits form the most important source for the collection of small savings especially from people of small means. The agency of the Post-office Savings Bank is very much suited to the rural areas where there are little banking facilities. Moreover, as an agency of the Government, it enjoys complete confidence of the people. In 1962-63, there were 99 post-offices doing savings bank work in Sangli district. The following statement gives the amounts deposited in these banks and the amounts withdrawn from them:—

TABLE No. 18

STATISTICS OF THE WORKING OF POSTAL SAVINGS BANKS, SANGLI DISTRICT

Period	No of savings Banks	Amount of Deposits (Rs.)	Amount of withdrawals (Rs.)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1-1-62 to 31-3-62	93	3457601·13	1241951·46
1-4-62 to 31-3-63	99	8888640·63	6917736·38

Twelve-year National Plan Savings Certificates.—These Certificates were introduced with effect from June 1957 when the then existing Seven-Year and 12-year National Savings Certificates and 10-year National Plan Certificates were discontinued.

They yield an income-tax free simple interest of 5.41 per cent and compound interest of 4.25 per cent at maturity, *i.e.*, at the end of 12 years. They are encashable even before maturity except for an initial period of 18 months. The Government thereafter introduced five and seven years series (which were also encashable before maturity) yielding the rate of 3 per cent and 3 4/7 per cent, respectively, at full maturity. The following statement shows the amount of savings invested in the Twelve-year National Plan Savings Certificates from 1958-59 to 1961-62:—

Year	Amount (Rs.) Gross	Amount (Rs.) Net
1958-59	29,19,119	20,92,181
1959-60	41,80,750	33,40,578
1960-61	20,94,755	7,28,862
1961-62	37,81,395	17,80,262

Ten-year Treasury Savings Deposit Certificates.—The scheme of Ten-year Treasury Savings Deposit Certificates was started in 1951. These Certificates are sold in denominations of Rs. 50 and investment in them can be made by cash or cheque. The maximum that can be invested depends upon whether the investor is an individual or an institution. The interest at the rate of 4 per cent is paid annually on the completion of each period of twelve calendar months from the date of deposit. The certificates are exempt from income-tax, can be hypothecated and can be encashed before they reach maturity.

The aggregate figures of total subscriptions received in Sangli district for these Certificates are given in the following statement:—

Year	Amount (Rs.)	
1951	19,600	
1952	95,800	
1953	87,800	
1954	71,800	
1955	1,46,300	
1956	65,800	
1957	37,200	
1958	63,250	(up to Sept. 1958).
1958-59	11,250	From Treasury Office.
1959-60	1,01,850	From Treasury Office.
1960-61	31,550	From Treasury Office.
1961-62	950	From Treasury Office.
1958-59	1,67,150	From other sources.
1959-60	1,97,500	From other sources.
1960-61	3,61,150	From other sources.
1961-62	1,95,650	From other sources.

Fifteen-year Annuity Certificates.—These certificates were issued from 2nd January, 1958. They are sold in multiples of Rs. 3,325 up to Rs. 26,600 and yield the amount together with compound interest of approximately 4.25 per cent every year by way of monthly payments, spread over 15 year. An annuity certificate can now be had for Rs. 1,330 yielding an annuity of Rs. 10 per month for 15 years. The amount thus received is free from income-tax or super-tax. The investment in this scheme serves a double purpose. It provides a safe, secure and profitable avenue for a lump sum investment of accumulated savings of a person and also ensures a regular monthly income to him. These investments, however, are available only for a single adult, two adults jointly and a guardian on behalf of a minor. Institutions, corporations and firms cannot make investments in these certificates.

The following table gives the details of the subscriptions received at the branches of the State Bank of India at Sangli and Miraj, respectively:—

Year (1)	Subscription at Sangli Branch (2)	Subscription at Miraj Branch (3)	Total (4)
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1958-59	33,250	3,325	36,575
1959-60	16,625	39,900	56,525
1960-61	43,225	1,66,250	2,09,475
1961-62	21,280	83,125	1,04,405

Cumulative Time Deposit Scheme.—The Government has introduced this scheme within the framework of the Post-office Savings Bank from 2nd January 1958. This was done with a view to encouraging the habit of regular savings of small amounts which could be useful on specific occasions like marriage, education of children, building a house, etc. The scheme was revised in 1962 to make it more attractive for salaried persons. There are three types of accounts, *viz.*, 5-year, 10-year and 15-year. A person may deposit up to Rs. 200 per month in the first two types and up to Rs. 300 in the 15-year account. Deposits can be made in fixed denominations of Rs. 5, 10, 20, 50, 100, 200 and 300 subject to the limits for individual and joint accounts for each type. The total deposit during the entire period of the accounts is not to exceed Rs. 54,000 in the case of an individual's account or Rs. 1,08,000 in the case of joint accounts. Withdrawals of sums in multiples of Rs. 10 totalling not more than 50 per cent of the deposits made into the account are allowed once in the case of a five-year account, twice in the case of a 10-year account and thrice in the case of 15-year account, after the account has been in operation at least for one year.

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

BANKING AND FINANCE.

Small-Savings

The Government of India have now allowed to holders of Fifteen-year Annuity Certificates (I and II series) the facility of surrendering their certificates at any time after a period of 12 months from the date of deposits and obtaining the commutation value thereof. This facility was made available from 1st October, 1962.

Since the declaration of national emergency in 1962 small savings have been turned towards defence purposes. Accordingly certain changes were introduced in the schemes mentioned above. The Twelve-year National Plan Certifcates, the Ten-year Treasury Saving Deposit Certificates and the Fifteen-year Annuity Certificates were changed into Twelve-year National Defence Certificates, Ten-year Defence Deposit Certificates and the Fifteen-year Cash Annuity Certificates, respectively. Their rates of interest were also raised to Rs. 6.25, Rs. 4.50 and Rs. 4.25 (compound) per annum, respectively.

Joint-stock Companies.

The evolution of the modern joint-stock companies can be traced to a period when the proprietory or in a few cases the partnership type of concerns had existed in the district. The old District Gazetteer mentions a few such concerns engaged in meeting the needs of individuals, who were mostly agriculturists. The companies as they exist today are, however, far different from the old ones both in their form as well as in their methods of collecting enormous funds. They are, in fact, developed as a suitable form of business organisation to minimise the instability and hazards of business and to enable it to raise large capital resources in order to meet its growing demands.

Two types of joint-stock companies are at present in existence in the district—(1) private limited companies and (2) public limited companies. The Companies Act of 1956 describes the former as one which restricts the right to transfer its shares, limits the number of its members to fifty and prohibits raising public subscriptions for any shares, or debentures of the company. The Act further lays down that "no company, association or partnership consisting of more than twenty persons shall be formed for the purpose of carrying on any other business that has for its object the acquisition of gain by the company, association or partnership or by the individual members thereof unless it is registered as a company".

Private Limited Companies.

By 1962, there were in the district nineteen private limited companies. All of them were started during the war or post-war period, the oldest of them being the Madhavnagar Cotton Mills and the Budhgaon Trading Company, both registered on 25th March 1944. Among others four companies were registered in the fifties of the present century and three after 1962. The objects of these companies differ widely as the following table would indicate:—

TABLE No. 19

CLASSIFICATION OF JOINT-STOCK COMPANIES, PRIVATE LIMITED

Serial No.	Type of Company	Name of Company	Authorised Capital	Paid-up Capital	Debentures	Reserves.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1	Manufacturing Textiles	(i) Madhavnagar Cotton Mills	25,00,000	15,95,000	13,75,591	17,00,545
		(ii) Miraj Textile Mills	50,00,000	40,000	..	..
2	Oil Extracting	S. K. Industries	5,00,000	3,68,500	2,788	..
3	Engineering	(i) Bhide and Company	3,00,000	1,60,000	28,000	2,077
		(ii) Yeshwant Industrial Works	5,00,000	87,000	1,86,651	..
		(iii) Sangli Forging and Metal Industries	5,00,000	..	..	..
4	Chemicals	Ajit Laboratories, Private Limited	2,50,000	59,600	8,878	..
5	Others	(i) Milan Shoe Co.	5,00,000	..	..	..
		(ii) Deccan Dairies	2,00,000	99,000	44,000	.

CHAPTER 6. Banking, Trade and Commerce. BANKING AND FINANCE. Joint-stock Companies. *Private Limited Companies.*

The table indicates that of the nineteen private limited companies, only one is engaged in the manufacture of cotton cloth and one in oil extracting. In the engineering field there are three companies, in chemicals two, in general trading three, and in miscellaneous six companies have been working in the district. Almost all these companies have issued ordinary shares to raise the funds.

Public Limited Companies.

Among public limited companies excluding banks the oldest company in the district is the Kirloskar Brothers, Ltd., registered in 1920. Most of the other concerns came up during the post-war period. By 1962 there were 15 companies in the district. Their broad classification indicates that ten of them belonged to the manufacturing group, two to the trading group and the rest to the financial group. Of the manufacturing group three companies were engaged in engineering works, three in printing and publishing, two in oil extraction and one each in the production of sugar and matches.

The financial position of these companies is given in next page.—

TABLE No. 20

FINANCIAL POSITION OF THE PUBLIC LIMITED COMPANIES, SANGLI DISTRICT

Serial No.	Type of company	Authorised capital	Paid-up capital	Debentures	Reserves
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1	Manufacturing—				
	(i) Engineering*	1,06,00,000	43,75,830	8,73,452	17,144
	(ii) Oil-extracting	50,00,000	3,07,265	4,32,927	..
	(iii) Printing and publishing	11,63,000	88,790	..	..
	(iv) Production of sugar and matches.	50,50,000	40,76,900	42,20,925	27,74,132
2	Trading—				
	(i) Automobiles (purchase and sale of).	20,000	..	..	..

*This also includes making and repairing of furniture, agricultural implements, machine tools, etc.

SECTION II—TRADE AND COMMERCE

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.

Employment in Trade.

Trading activities provide employment to a considerable number of persons in Sangli district. The number of sales workers [as classified in the Census of India, 1961, Economic Tables, Vol. X, Part II-B (ii)] stands at 13,775 of whom 12,269 are men and 1,506 are women. The following statement shows the number of persons engaged in various heads of trade:—

EXTENT OF EMPLOYMENT IN VARIOUS CATEGORIES OF TRADE*

(1)	Total (2)	Males (3)	Females (4)
(1) Working proprietors, wholesale trade ..	534	525	9
(2) Working proprietors, retail trade	7,286	6,473	813
(3) Commercial travellers and manufacturers' agents.	104	104	..
(4) Salesmen and shop assistants, wholesale and retail trade.	3,097	2,951	146
(5) Hawkers, pedlars and street vendors	2,476	1,999	477
(6) Salesmen, shop assistants and related workers (not elsewhere classified).	165	107	58

Changes in Pattern of Trade

Considerable changes have taken place in the pattern, composition and organisation of trade in Sangli district. These could be attributed to changes in the position of demand and supply of the commodities, improved means of transport, technological advance, easier monetary conditions and growth of banking.

There has been a sizeable increase in the volume of trade. In keeping with this increase, the number of agencies connected with trading activities has also gone up. With the improvement in the means of transport and communications, trade is no longer confined to local areas. Numerous goods are exported to distant places. Imports from distant markets pour in huge quantities. Banking facilities have made finance available to the traders. Banking institutions are to be found in all the towns in the district.

Since the regulation of markets under the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act of 1939, there has been a remarkable change in the organisation of trade. The transactions of sale and purchase of agricultural produce are held under the supervision of the market committees. This has helped in reducing malpractices, and a number of irregularities have been eliminated. Co-operative societies have also emerged as a great force in the marketing of agricultural produce. They compete with the other general commission agents.

* These include workers engaged in any capacity in wholesale or retail trading activity and commercial transactions relating to imports and exports.

Sangli is the seat for the forward market of turmeric trade. This market is of great commercial importance not only in this district but in the entire State.

Trade Routes.

By the middle of the last century there were very few routes of trade. Traffic was mainly by carts and pack-bullocks. The Poona-Belgaum road which then ran through Satara and Tasgaon, and the road from Satara to Kolhapur which then ran by Masur, Karad, and Kasegaon to the Varna were partly passable to carts.[1] During the eighties of the last century, the Poona-Belgaum mail road was the chief line of traffic. The Peth-Sangli road served as an artery to the main road and was crossed by almost all the important roads of the district. The Karad-Tasgaon and Satara-Tasgaon roads served the needs of cart traffic. The former allowed heavy cart traffic[2].

Present Routes of Trade.

The Poona-Bangalore railway line which passes through the heart of the district is one of the most important routes of trade. It has made transit facilities available from this district to Poona, Belgaum, Harihar, Hubli, Dharwar, Bangalore, Kolhapur and Goa. After the conversion of this metre gauge line into a broad gauge one, which is in progress, its importance as an artery of trade will be heightened. It will facilitate direct transit trade with Bombay and distant markets in Maharashtra and Gujarat.

The Poona-Bangalore national highway which passes through the district is a very important route which serves goods traffic from Sangli *via* Sangli-Peth road. This route, which can be approached from Sangli by the Sangli-Peth as well as by the Sangli-Kolhapur roads, facilitates goods transport to Karad, Poona and Bombay on the one hand and Belgaum, Hubli and Bangalore on the other. Besides, the district is fairly served by the (1) Sangli-Miraj road, (2) Sangli-Tasgaon-Vita-Mayani road, (3) Miraj-Pandharpur road, and (4) Karad-Tasgaon road.

Thus, the road routes in the district have facilitated trade links with Bombay, Poona, Satara, Bangalore, Sholapur, Kolhapur, Belgaum and Bijapur districts.

Imports.

The chief articles of import[3] in Sangli district comprise consumers goods, manufactures, industrial raw materials, industrial appliances, building material, etc. Among food grains, rice is imported from Bombay, Panvel, Pen, Mahad and Karwar; wheat from Madhya Pradesh and the Punjab; *tur dal* from Surat and Belgaum; tobacco from Nipani and Kolhapur; tea and coffee from Bombay, Cochin and other centres in South India; cloth from Bombay, Sholapur, Ahmedabad, Nagpur, Madras and Bangalore; hosiery from Bombay, Delhi and Ludhiana; sarees from Bombay, Ichalkaranji, Nagpur, Malegaon, Bangalore

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[1] Gazetteer of Bombay Presidency, Vol. XIX, Satara District, 1885.
[2] *Ibid.*
[3] The word import is used to connote the goods brought in this district from outside places either in India or abroad.

CHAPTER 6. Banking, Trade and Commerce. TRADE AND COMMERCE. Imports.

Coimbatore and Madura; dhotis from Bombay, Nagpur and Sholapur. As regards building materials, timber is imported from Kolhapur, Nasik, Malbar and Karwar; hardwares from Bombay, Poona, Calcutta; cement from Bombay, Porbundar and Okha. Drugs and medicines are brought from Bombay, Poona, Baroda, Calcutta, Ahmadnagar, Panvel and Satara; brassware and copperware from Bombay, Belgaum, Hubli, Poona and Rajapur; glassware from Oglewadi and Talegaon; leather goods from Bombay, Kanpur, Lucknow and Kolhapur; and stationery and cutlery articles from Bombay and Poona. Mechanical appliances and machine tools are mainly brought from Bombay, Poona and Calcutta.

The pattern of import trade in the past was in keeping with the then existing economy. The chief articles of import were groceries, rice, salt, metals, coconuts, dates, hardwares, machinery and cloth. Copper and brass were sometimes imported in sheets and then shaped into various utensils. Mill-made cloth was imported from Bombay.

Exports.

The position of export[1] trade in the last quarter of the nineteenth century could be described as under:—

"The chief exports are molasses, grain, earthnuts, turmeric, chillis, cotton, timber and cloth. Since the opening of bridged and well-made roads, molasses, the chief export of the district has of late come into increasing demands, and the cultivation of sugarcane has greatly spread. Millet, wheat, chillis, turmeric and tobacco are sent to Bombay by Chiplun, chiefly from Satara, Karad and Valva, by the local and Gujar Vanis who get these articles from the Kunbi husbandmen either in payment of debts or on cash payment. Cotton is sent from Valva and Tasgaon in bullock carts to Chiplun by Bhatias and Gujarat Vanis who buy unginned cotton from the husbandmen, have it cleared by hand-machines, and pack it in bales, each weighing about 250 pounds (10 maunds). As there is growing import of European and Bombay piece goods, the growing of cotton has lately fallen off. Coarse cloth, cotton sheets or *pasodis,* and blankets are chiefly sent to other districts.'[2]

At present, the chief items of export trade are groundnut, turmeric, *gul,* jowar, chillis, cotton and coriander seed. The following paragraphs describe the direction and mode of export trade of principal commodities.

Turmeric.

Turmeric (*halad*) is one of the most important items of export from Sangli district. In fact a major portion of turmeric trade in Maharashtra State is carried on at Sangli. Turmeric is exported from Sangli to Bombay, Gujarat, Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Bihar, Delhi, and foreign countries in the middle east, *viz.,* Iran, Iraq, Saudi Arabia, and to Great Britain, America and France[3].

[1] For the purpose of this Gazetteer, the word export is used to connote the goods sent out of this district.

[2] Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency, Vol. XIX, Satara, 1885.

[3] The middle-east countries as well as the European countries import Indian turmeric mainly for the manufacture of dye-stuffs. Turmeric is a good earner of oreign exchange.

There is a forward market in turmeric. The forward transactions at Sangli are on such a large scale that the entire turmeric trade in India is affected by fluctuations at Sangli. The market review of day-to-day transactions at Sangli is published in the *Times of India* and other leading newspapers.

The turmeric trade at Sangli amounts to about 1,39,965 quintals (3,75,000 Bengali maunds) per year. It forms quite a sizeable part of the total turmeric trade of India.*

There are two varieties of turmeric at Sangli, *viz.*, *Jawari* and *Karhadi*. The *jawari* variety is grown mainly in the southern part of Sangli, and in Vita, Tasgaon, Khanapur and Chinchali. The *Karhadi* variety mainly comes from Satara district and Walwa taluka of Sangli district. Both these varieties are regarded to be superior to those in other parts of India. They possess higher sugar contents, and their fingers (*halakund*) can be broken easily. The Sangli turmeric is popularly known as *Rajapuri halad*. To obtain marketable turmeric, the fingers are separated from the bulbs and *chora*. *Chora* is used as seed for sowing.

The agriculturists bring the produce to the market which is openly auctioned under the supervision of the market committee. The general commission agents act as intermediaries between the agriculturists and purchasers. There are also purchasing agents who purchase the produce under instructions received from the respective businessmen outside the district as well as from the State.

Though warehousing facilities on scientific lines are inadequate, the Central Warehousing Corporation of India has been rendering remarkable help in this respect. There are private godowns as

* The total turnover of turmeric production in India is over 7,46,000 quintals (20 lakhs of Bengali maunds) per year. Statistics of turnover at Sangli and other centres in the country for the year 1961-62 and 1962-63 are given below:—

Centres	1961-62		1962-63	
	Bags	B. Maunds	Bags	B. Maunds
Sangli	150	375	150	375
Nizamabad ..	100	250	100	250
Cuddappa	175	350	200	400
Duggiralal Erole ..	175	350	175	350
Salem, Karur ..	175	305	225	355
Rajmundry ..	70	120	70	120
Behrampur ..	100	175	100	175
Other minor centres	50	125	50	125
Total ..	995	2,050	1,070	2,190

CHAPTER 6. Banking, Trade and Commerce. TRADE AND COMMERCE. Exports.

well. A large bulk of the commodity is, however, stored in underground pits called *pava*. Turmeric can be stored in a *pava* for two to three years without being spoilt. Turmeric traders, however, prefer to store it in pits than in the warehouses.

Groundnut.

Groundnut is one of the most important commercial crops of Sangli. It occupies an area of about 81,139.54 hectares (2,00,500 acres) in the district, and is grown in almost all the talukas. The Tasgaon and Khanapur talukas are more affluent in groundnut production. Sangli, Tasgaon, Vita, Islampur and Takari are the most important centres of groundnut trade. The turnover of groundnut transactions at each of the centres is given below:—

Sangli	63,000 Bags.
Tasgaon	75,000 Bags.
Vita	8,040 Quintals (Rs. 4,96,250).
Takari	19,180 Quintals (Rs. 10,54,000).
Miraj	41,091 Bags.
Jath	16,000 Bags.

A very large part of the total groundnut produce is crushed at oil mills in the district. There are oil mills at Sangli, Tasgaon, Vita, Islampur and Miraj. Oil as well as groundnut seed are exported to Bombay, Karnatak, Konkan and Poona. Nearly 75 per cent of the traffic in groundnut and oil is by road, whereas the railways transport less than 25 per cent. Groundnut cake which is used as a cattle feed as well as manure finds a very good local demand. It is also exported to Kolhapur and Poona.

The commercial importance of groundnut is increasing since the last many decades. The starting of the Vanaspati industry has led to an increase in the demand for groundnut oil. This has encouraged the farmers to increase the production of groundnut.

The procedure of sale and purchase of groundnut at the regulated markets is as per the regulations laid down in the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act of 1939. This has minimised the incidence of malpractices such as false weights, unauthorised deductions and low bidding.

Gul

Gul (jaggery) is an important item of export trade in Sangli district. Large-scale sugarcane cultivation, which occupies about 10,117.150 hectares (25,000 acres) of land, has encouraged *gul* manufacturing on an extensive scale. The production of *gul* in all the talukas of Sangli district is more than the needs of local markets. It has been one of the chief items of exports for more than the past 50 years.

The turnover of *gul* trade at Sangli was 5,44,252 bags in 1959-60, 8,45,631 bags in 1960-61 and 5,16,936 bags in 1961-62. The value of *gul* traded at Takari was Rs. 2,94,909 in 1959-60, Rs. 2,31,570 in 1960-61 and Rs. 1,51,950 in 1961-62. At Tasgaon, 7,226 lumps (*dhepa*) were sold in 1960-61 and 5,603 lumps in 1961-62. The Vita market accounted for 1,280 quintals valued at Rs. 31,980 in

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1960-61 and for 2,005 quintals valued at Rs. 87,744 in 1961-62. The volume of turnover at Miraj was 2,455 bags in 1959-60, 2,743 in 1960-61 and 1,723 in 1961-62. The turnover of *gul* sales at Jath was 16,269 bags in 1960-61 and 14,363 bags in 1961-62.*

Gul.

The abovementioned markets are export centres. The principal destinations of export are Bombay, Poona, Jalgaon, Dhulia, Gujarat and Karnatak region. Nearly 25 per cent of the total exports go to Karnatak. The bulk of the traffic is by motor trucks.

Trade in *gul* is regulated under the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act of 1939. It is assembled at the market yards by agriculturists, and sold by open auction through general commission agents and co-operative societies. The general commission agents or purchasers export the merchandise to distant markets.

The business is brisk from January to May.

Jowar.

Jowar occupies about 2,59,201.38 hectares (6,40,500 acres) of the total cropped area in the district. This staple food crop is grown in all the talukas.

Sangli, Vita, Islampur, Miraj, Jath, Tasgaon and Shirala are the main assembling and distributing markets of jowar. The destinations of exports are Bombay, Kolhapur, Poona, Konkan and Gujarat. Bulk of the export trade is transported mainly by road, while railways account for only a fraction of the transport load.

The turnover of jowar trade at Sangli was 76,040 bags in 1959-60, 82,346 bags in 1960-61 and 72,279 in 1961-62. The turnover of jowar trade at Miraj was 57,346 bags in 1959-60, 54,217 bags in 1960-61 and 51,663 in 1961-62. The turnover of trade at Jath was 9,666 bags in 1959-60, 12,273 bags in 1960-61 and 12,704 in 1961 62. Vita accounted for 1,208 quintals of jowar trade in 1960-61 and 1,432 quintals in 1961-62. Jowar trade at Tasgaon amounted to 22,490 bags in 1958-59, 35,116 bags in 1960-61 and 22,716 bags in 1961-62. The turnover of jowar trade at Takari market amounted to Rs. 8,39,271 in 1959-60, Rs. 11,47,380 in 1960-61 and Rs. 6,40,647 in 1961-62.*

Jowar trade also is regulated under the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act of 1939. As such, all the transactions are carried out under the supervision of the market committees.

Other Exports.

The other items of export trade from Sangli district are chillis, cotton, sugar, coriander seed, *math, tur* and cattle. Chillis are exported by road to the Konkan region. Cotton is used mostly by the cotton mills at Sangli and Madhavanagar. Cloth is exported to Satara, Karnatak and Kolhapur. Ginned cotton is sent to Sholapur. Coriander seed is mostly sent to Madras, Coimbatore, Bangalore, and markets on the Southern Railway. Tamarind is exported to Bombay and places in South India.

* The statistics of turnover of trade given in this paragraph pertain to the transactions, the respective market yards.

CHAPTER 6. Banking, Trade and Commerce. TRADE AND COMMERCE. Exports. *Other Exports.*

The main centres from which these commodities are exported are Sangli, Miraj, Tasgaon, Vita and Islampur.

Sangli is an export centre of coarse cloth and handloom cloth manufactured at Sangli, Madhavanagar and Budhgaon. Since the establishment of a sugar factory at Madhavanagar, sugar is also exported to other districts in Maharashtra.

Regulated Markets.

Regulation of agricultural produce markets is of prime importance in so far as it ensures proper returns to the farmer for his produce. Besides safeguarding the farmer from possible malpractices and exploitation, it provides better prices for the produce.

The history of regulation of agricultural markets in this district can be traced back to 1947 in which year the Takari market was brought within the purview of the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act, 1939. Subsequently, the regulation was made applicable to Tasgaon market in 1948, Sangli in 1950 and Vita in 1960. The Agricultural Produce Market Committee, Sangli, serves the Miraj and Jath talukas, that of Tasgaon serves Tasgaon taluka, that at Takari serves Walwa taluka and Shirala peta. The Khanapur taluka is served by the Vita Market Committee. The regulation of markets in the district has made remarkable progress.

Market Practices.

Under the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act of 1939, and the subsequent amendment of 1963, sale and purchase of the regulated commodities is controlled by the respective market committees. Sale and purchase of the commodities within a certain radius of the market yard is banned by rules. Business transactions are to be held on the market premises only. The price of commodities brought into the market is settled by open auction or by open agreement, and sales under cover are prohibited. No deductions from the agreed price of consignment are allowed except for any authorised trade allowance. Weighment is done usually by licenced weighmen in the premises of the market yards. Though all the transactions are done under the supervision of the market committee the buyers sometimes circumvent the supervision over the settlement of prices and payments. The buyers conspire to bid lower prices. This results in losses to the farmers. Payments are made in cash. Some of the payment, however, are not made in cash but are adjusted against the loans taken by the producers from the merchants.

Prior to regulation of markets, the buyers and their commission agents used to make numerous deductions from the sales-proceeds on account of a multiplicity of market charges, *viz.*, *dharmadaya*, *goshala* and temple charges, *kasar*, *tut*, etc. These charges are prohibited now. The authorised market charges, at present, cover taxes, market cess, commission and weighment charges.

Every market committee is a corporate body and is responsible for the effective supervision and management of the respective markets and sub-markets. It can acquire, purchase or sell property and premises. It is composed of members elected from among the constituencies of farmers and traders, and government nominated members. The nominated members comprise the Assistant Registrar of Co-operative Societies, Mamlatdar of the concerned taluka and a representative of local self-government bodies. There is a majority of elected members in the committee.

Sangli.

Sangli is by far the biggest and the most important regulated market in the district and the surrounding region. The Agricultural Produce Market Committee, Sangli came into being in 1950 and had a jurisdiction over Miraj taluka. Under the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act of 1939, sale and purchase of groundnut (unshelled as well as shelled), *gul* turmeric and chillis were brought under regulation. Subsequently, the area of operations of the market committee was extended to Jath taluka also, and a sub-market at Jath was established in 1959. In view of the importance of Miraj as a foodgrains market, a sub-market was established there in 1954.

At present, the following commodities are under regulation: groundnut (shelled as well as unshelled), turmeric, *gul*, chillis, cotton (ginned as well as unginned), *tur* gram, coriander, safflower, *mug*, *mataki*, *udid*, castor seed, jowar, bajri, wheat, maize and cattle. For effective regulation of purchase and sale of agricultural commodities, the market committee has constructed its own market yards at Sangli, Miraj and Jath. Due to the better prices offered by these markets nearly 80 per cent of the agricultural produce is sold in their yards, whereas about 20 per cent is sold locally in the villages. The principal market functionaries, are, general commission agents, traders, weighmen and *hamals*. The following figures give number of the various functionaries in the market area in 1961-62:—

(i) 'A' class traders	134	(v) General commission agents ..	52
(ii) 'A' class traders and general commission agents.	164	(vi) Teli traders	12
(iii) 'B' Class traders	134	(vii) Weighmen	84
(iv) Retail traders	1220	(viii) Hamals	138

The agriculturists bring their produce to the general commission agents who work as intermediaries between the sellers and buyers (traders). Sales by open agreement system are allowed in exceptional cases. As soon as the bargain is settled, an agreement is executed by the commission agent, and weighment is made by licensed weighmen. Payments are immediately made to the farmer after deducting commission, market cess, weighing

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charges and *hamali* charges. The rates of market charges are given below:—

Commodity	Commission (for Rs. 100 sale-proceeds)	Market Cess	Weighment (per bag)	Hamali (per bag)
Groundnut	1·56	0·15	0·02	0·06
Gul	1·56	0·15	0·02	0·04
Turmeric	1·56	0·15	0·03	0·12
Chillis	1·56	0·15	0·03	0·12
Cotton	1·56	0·15	0·05 (per docra)	0·25 (per docra)
Foodgrains	1·56	0·15	0·02	0·12

Facilities, such as, storage shed, electric lights, canteen and potable water are provided by the market committee.

The volume of trade in groundnut, turmeric, *gul,* chillis and jowar at Sangli is considerable. The following table gives the annual arrivals of regulated commodities at Sangli market yard, and Miraj and Jath sub-yards in 1959-60, 1960-61 and 1961-62.

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TRADE AND COMMERCE.

Regulated Markets.

Sangli.

TABLE No. 21

TURNOVER OF TRADE AT SANGLI, MIRAJ AND JATH MARKETS

(Figures in bags)

Commodity	Arrivals in 1959-60			Arrivals in 1960-61			Arrivals in 1961-62		
	Sangli Market Yard	Miraj Sub-Market Yard	Jath Sub-Market Yard	Sangli Market Yard	Miraj Sub-Market Yard	Jath Sub-Market Yard	Sangli Market Yard	Miraj Sub-Market Yard	Jath Sub-Market Yard
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Groundnut (unshelled)	6,38,117	17,393	19,971	4,43,130	15,718	11,803	63,311	41,091	16,249
Groundnut (shelled)	246	..	88	339	4	4	130	..	8
Tumeric	1,16,220	..	285	1,09,719	9	998	1,15,204	5	515
Gul	5,44,252	2,455	1,764	8,45,631	2,743	16,269	5,16,936	1,723	14,363
Chillis	86,894	126	2,754	48,724	230	6,899	81,058	..	1,373
Cotton	42,674	985	28,287	47,992	23	26,621	51,821	127	37,478
Tur	1,638	920	209	2,446	1,908	172	3,960	1,450	651
Gram	4,450	1,563	157	6,839	2,613	321	6,588	2,150	160
Coriander	16,240	164	160	9,503	294	80	7,926	183	464
Safflower	580	102	6,979	1,540	169	11,037	3,900	152	5,637
Mug	423	718	153	615	697	212	878	954	248
Mataki	275	548	187	176	419	42	589	303	240
Udid	398	42	17	180	25	1	2,483	17	2
Castor seed	3,597	10	390	3,902	13	434	2,971	12	330
Jowar	76,040	57,346	9,666	82,346	54,217	12,273	72,279	51,663	12,704
Bajri	3,543	412	1,938	1,130	382	1,096	734	412	2,894
Wheat	8,721	4,700	1,410	8,573	4,986	1,957	16,984	6,282	2,170
Maize	1,181	386	307	1,606	480	405	976	469	541

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TRADE AND COMMERCE.

Regulated Markets.

Sangli.

The annual total turnover of trade at the market yards during the period 1959—62 is given below:—

(figures in rupees)

year	Sangli Market	Miraj Sub-market	Jath Sub-market
1959-60	4,66,88,514	32,45,362	26,77,435
1960-61	4,52,95,584	32,19,942	27,46,587
1961-62	5,19,91,673	42,85,785	29,54,793

The financial position of the market committee is indicated in the following statement.

On account of favourable crops in 1961-62 there was considerable increase in the arrivals of groundnut, turmeric, chillis and cotton.

Year	Income	Expenditure
	Rs.	Rs.
1959-60	1,23,247	1,34,076
1960-61	1,29,609	1,02,304
1961-62	1,27,186	1,10,307

Co-operative marketing societies licensed by the market committee deal in the purchase and sale of agricultural produce in the market premises. This has gone a long way in safeguarding the interests of the agriculturists. The following societies function in the market yards:—

Sangli Market Yard—

(1) Shri Ganapati District Co-operative Purchase and Sale Union, Sangli.

(2) Varna Valley Co-operative Purchase and Sale Union (Branch).

(3) Karad Co-operative Purchase and Sale Society (Branch).

Miraj Yard—

(1) Shri Ganapati District Co-operative Purchase and Sale Union.

(2) Miraj Urban Co-operative Bank.

(3) Miraj Group Multipurpose Co operative Society.

Jath Yard—

(1) Shri Ganapati District Co-operative Purchase and Sale Union.

(2) Jath Taluka Co-operative Purchase and Sale Society.

(3) Vividh Karyakari Sahakari Society.

Regulated Markets.
Vita.

The Sangli market has been selected, by the government, as one of the agencies for reporting the daily prices for broadcasting them from the *Akashwani*. The daily price position is reported to the Market Research Officer, Bombay, who provides the same to the *Akashwani*.

The Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets . Act, 1939, was made applicable to the purchase and sale of groundnut, turmeric, *gul*, coriander, safflower, jowar, bajra, gram and *tur* as early as 1947 in Khanapur taluka. It was, then, under the jurisdiction of the Takari market committee. Subsequently it was separated from the latter and constituted into an independent market committee at Vita. The Vita market committee, which was formed in 1960, has jurisdiction over the Khanapur taluka. Trade in groundnut, turmeric, *gul*, coriander, safflower, jowar, bajra, gram, *tur* and cattle is regulated at present.

The market yard provides facilities such as shed, potable water, etc.

The main articles of trade at Vita are jowar, cattle, groundnut and *gul*. The following table shows the annual arrivals of the regulated commodities during the period between 1960-61 and 1961-62:—

TABLE No. 22

Commodity	Quantity in quintals	Value in rupees	Quantity in quintals	Value in rupees
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Groundnut ..	510	30,678	8,040	4,96,250
Turmeric ..	18	1,350	41	7,905
Gul ..	1,280	31,980	2,005	87,744
Coriander ..	..	..	54	2,696
Safflower ..	..	..	N.A.	500
Jowar ..	1,208	42,280	1,432	60,690
Bajra ..	134	4,095	367	15,855
Gram ..	28	1,960	72	3,560
Tur ..	129	4,960	543	24,150
Cattle ..	4,259 (Number)	15,96,966	6,834 (Number)	21,25,058

During 1961-62 prices of groundnut were fairly steady throughout. Prices of jowar and other foodgrains were high during the same period.

The Khanapur Taluka Shetkari Sahakari Sangh, Vita, functions as general commission agent in the Vita market yard. This society handled 35 per cent of the total arrivals of jowar,

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94 per cent of turmeric, 57 per cent of *gul*, 28 per cent of coriander, 40 per cent of safflower, 30 per cent of jowar, 16 per cent of bajra, 11 per cent of *tur* and 26 per cent of gram in 1961-62.

The market committee displays day-to-day prices prevailing at the neighbouring markets of Sangli and Karad. The Bombay prices are recorded from the price bulletin broadcast from Bombay Radio Station, and are kept in the office for information.

Tasgaon.

The Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act was made applicable to Tasgaon in 1948. The market area extends over the whole of Tasgaon taluka. The market committee maintains a spacious yard equipped with the usual amenities. The regulated commodities are groundnut, (shelled as well as unshelled), turmeric, *gul*, *tur*, safflower (*karadai*), jowar, bajra, gram, *udid*, coriander, wheat, maize, chillis, chavali and tamarind. Trade in cattle and sheep is also brought under regulation.

The principal market functionaries are traders, general commission agents and weighmen. Their number in 1960-61 and 1961-62 is given below:—

	1960-61	1961-62
'A' class traders	17	19
'B' class traders	48	39
Retail traders	799	656
General commission agents	14	10
'A' class traders and general commission agents ..	7	7
Weighmen	8	8
Hamals	56	54

The main articles of trade at Tasgaon are jowar, groundnut and *gul*. The following table gives the annual arrivals of the regulated commodities during 1958-59, 1960-61 and 1961-62:—

TABLE No. 23

TURNOVER OF TRADE AT TASGAON MARKET

(Figures in bags)

Commodity	1958-59	1960-61	1961-62
Groundnut	30,508	59,225	75,081
Turmeric	7,352	5,207	4,424
Gul	16,242 (lumps)	7,226 (lumps)	5,603 (lumps)
Tur	347	599	1,244
Safflower	410	1,469	264
Jowar	22,490	35,116	22,716
Bajra	3,426	1,016	446
Gram	1,471	2,688	2,119
Udid	958	1,101	1,148
Coriander	1,030	1,362	1,843
Wheat	..	1,641	1,524
Maize	..	480	376
Chilli	..	216	982
Chavali	..	242	460
Tamarind	..	801	809

Tasgaon.

Co-operative marketing has achieved considerable progress in Tasgaon market. The Varna Valley Co-operative Purchase and Sale Union, Shri Ganapati District Purchase and Sale Union, the Tasgaon Taluka Co-operative Purchase and Sale Society and the Kawathe Ekand Co-operative Society act as general commission agents.

The market committee displays the prices and arrivals of regulated commodities daily. It also makes available the prices prevailing at Sangli, Karad, Kolhapur and Pandharpur markets for the information of the agriculturists.

Islampur.

Takari market was the first to be regulated in Sangli district. The Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act of 1939, was made applicable to Takari in 1947. The market has, however, been shifted to Islampur because of the facilities of transport available there. The area of operation of the market extends over Walwa taluka and Shirala peta. The market committee commands the principal market yard at Islampur and sub-market yard at Shirala.

The Islampur market has regulated the trade of groundnut (shelled as well as unshelled), turmeric, *gul*, jowar, bajra, coriander, gram, *tur*, safflower and cattle.

The Islampur market is affluent in the trade of groundnut, jowar and turmeric. The following table gives the total turnover of trade in the respective commodities:—

TABLE No. 24

TURNOVER OF TRADE DURING 1959-60, 1960-61 AND 1961-62

Commodity	1959-60	1960-61	1961-62
Groundnut	13,81,704	12,19,108	10,54,733
Turmeric	3,06,115	2,42,100	2,75,760
Gul	2,94,909	2,31,570	1,51,950
Coriander	16,450	7,880	1,276
Safflower (*Karadai*)	440	..	51
Jowar	8,39,271	11,47,380	6,40,647
Bajra	35,340	16,080	1,634
Gram	55,435	59,648	41,885
Tur	40,987	6,930	10,773
Cattle	25,94,381	20,48,558	4,38,046

Co-operative marketing societies have made considerable headway in this market. The Varna Valley Purchase and Sale Union has started its *adat* shop at Islampur. The other societies are the Balbhim Society and the Shirala Purchase and Sale Union.

Prices of all the regulated commodities are displayed daily.

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.

Trade Centres in 1885.

The following extracts from the Satara District Gazetteer* published in 1885 throw a light on the position of trade at Islampur, Vita and Tasgaon.

Islampur.—" Islampur or Urun in Valva has about thirty traders mostly Brahmans, Marwar, Gujrat and Lingayat Vanis and Maratha Kunbis. The traders send to Chiplun large quantities of tobacco and raw sugar or *gul,* and in exchange bring salt, dates, betelnuts, groceries, spices, English and country piecegoods, and metals which they sell at Islampur and the neighbouring villages. Besides Islampur, the large village of Shirala in Valva is famous for its brass lamps or *samais* which the Kasars send to Satara, Sholapur and Poona".

Vita.—" Vita in Khanapur has about 150 traders, mostly Brahmans, Marwar and local Vanis, Shimpis, Telis, Kasars, Sangars, Tambats, Salis and Musalmans. Of these traders, the Brahmans and Marwar vanis are generally money-lenders. English and Bombay piecegoods and twist are brought by Marwar Vanis and Shimpis from Bombay and Poona. The twist is bought by Momin Musalmans who weave it into turbans and by Sangars, and Salis who weave it into cotton sheets or *pasodis,* which are sold both at Vita and Kadegaon. From the growers, Marwar and local Vanis buy raw sugar or *gul,* and the Vanis and Telis buy sesame, earthnut, safflower and other oil-seeds, and send them largely to Chiplun, and in exchange bring salt, betelnuts, dates, and groceries".

Tasgaon.—" Tasgaon has about 150 traders, with capitals varying from £10 to £10,000 (Rs. 100 to Rs. 1,00,000) mostly Brahmans. Marwar, Gujrat and Lingayat Vanis, Maratha, Kunbis, Jains, Telis and Musalmans. The traders buy from the growers cotton, tobacco, raw sugar or *gul,* and earthnuts, and send them to Satara, Sholapur, Poona and Chiplun, and from Chiplun bring in exchange salt, piecegoods, dates, silk, sugar, metals and spices, which are sold to the people for cash. As there are no steam presses, cotton, which is the chief article of export, is loosely packed and loses much in quantity and quality".

Wholesale Trade Centres *Sangli.*

Sangli is by far the most important centre of trade and commerce not only in this district but also in the entire region of south Maharashtra. The factors which have contributed to the importance of Sangli as a centre of trade are the sympathetic attitude of the former princely state authorities and the availability of transport† and communications. Sangli is connected by roads to Poona, Satara, Karad, Kolhapur, Miraj, Pandharpur and Sholapur. The railway line to Miraj is also a trade route of importance.

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* *Gazetteer of Bombay Presidency, Vol. XIX, Satara District, 1885, pp. 215, 216.*

† As regards goods traffic, a large bulk is transported by road to Poona, Bombay, Kolhapur, Sholapur, Belgaum and other centres. Goods transport by railways forms a minor part of the whole of traffic. A motor truck is available for about Rs. 300 to Rs. 400 up to Bombay.

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Sangli is an entrepot centre of trade. Agricultural goods from a number of villages in the district and adjoining areas of Mysore are assembled here. The assembled merchandise is exported to Bombay, Poona, Konkan, Belgaum, Bijapur, Goa, Sholapur, Gujarat and a number of upcountry markets. Besides, it is a centre of wholesale trade in groundnut, turmeric, *gul*, chillis, cotton, jowar, *tur*, hardware, cloth, tobacco and a number of consumer goods.

The annual turnover of wholesale trade in agricultural produce alone amounts to over Rs. 6 crores. There is a forward market of turmeric trade at Sangli. Turmeric from Sangli is exported to Bombay, Poona, Gujarat, Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Bihar, Delhi and foreign countries in the Middle East, *viz.*, Iran, Iraq, Saudi Arabia, and also to Great Britain, America and France as well. Turmeric trade at Sangli amounts to about 1,39,965 quintals (3.75,000 Bengali maunds) per year.

Whosesale transactions in agricultural produce, such as, groundnut, turmeric, *gul*, chillis, cotton, *tur*, gram, coriander, safflower, *mug*, *math*, *udid*, castor seed, jowar, bajra, wheat, maize and cattle are regulated under the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act of 1939 and the Amendment Act of 1963.

Warehousing facilities are available at Sangli market. Storage for commodities on scientific lines has been provided on the market yard by the Central Warehousing Corporation since 1957. The central warehouses, constructed at a cost of Rs. 6.5 lakhs, have a storage capacity of about 4,117 metric tons or 41,000 bags. There are special types of godowns for *gul* and turmeric. Besides, there are a number of private godowns owned or hired by traders.

Fluctuations of prices of groundnut, jowar, cotton, bajra and many other commodities are in consonance with those at Bombay. The prices of groundnut over the period of the last seven years, except the year 1961-62, have shown an upward tendency. During 1961-62 groundnut fetched lower prices. Turmeric, *gul*, jowar and chillis showed a rising trend of prices during the last seven years.

During the period from November to April trading is brisk whereas June, July and August are months of quiet trade at Sangli.

Miraj.

Miraj owes much of its importance as a centre of trade and commerce to the railway facilities available there. Being a junction of the Poona-Bangalore, Miraj-Sangli, Miraj-Kolhapur and Miraj-Kurduwadi railway routes, a large trade in foodgrains and groundnut has been localised at Miraj. It has trade links with Belgaum, Bangalore, Hubli, Goa, Poona, Kolhapur and Bombay.

Miraj is a centre of wholesale trade in groundnut, jowar, wheat and bangles. Trade in groundnut, turmeric, *gul*, chillis, cotton, *tur*, gram, coriander, safflower, *mug*, *mataki*, *udid*, castor seed,

CHAPTER 6. Banking, Trade and Commerce. TRADE AND COMMERCE. Wholesale Trade Centres. *Miraj.*

jowar, bajra, wheat and maize is regulated under the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act. In view of its importance as a foodgrains market, the Market Committee established a sub-market yard at Miraj in 1954.

Jowar is exported from Miraj to Kolhapur and Konkan by trucks. Groundnut is sent chiefly to Bombay. Between September 1, 1962 and February 8, 1963, 5,000 quintals of unshelled groundnut were exported to Bombay. A large proportion of the wholesale trade in cotton, *gul,* chillis and turmeric has shifted from Miraj to Sangli. Cotton and *gul* trade was lost because of the paucity of competitive buyers at Miraj. The lack of effective demand prompted the sellers to take their goods to Sangli market.

The wholesale trade in bangles at Miraj deserves a mention. There are eight bangle dealers at Miraj. It is a distributing centre of bangles for Sangli, Satara, Belgaum and Goa. Bangles are mainly imported from Ferozabad* near Agra. The transactions are not on a commission basis, but involve outright transactions.

Vita.

Vita is a centre of wholesale transactions in groundnut, *gul,* jowar, turmeric, coriander, safflower, gram, *tur* and cattle. Trade in cattle, groundnut, *gul* and jowar is, however, more important. The annual turnover of cattle trade exceeds Rs. 21 lakhs and that of groundnut Rs. 5 lakhs. Business in all the abovementioned commodities is regulated and is supervised by the market committee.

Groundnut, *gul,* and jowar are the main commodities exported from Vita market. The destinations of export outside the district are Bombay, Poona, Konkan and Pandharpur. Goods are transported by (1) Chiplun-Karad-Bijapur highway and (2) Sangli-Tasgaon-Vita-Phaltan road. Agricultural produce from the nearby villages in Khanapur taluka is assembled here by agriculturists.

Tasgaon.

Tasgaon is a centre of wholesale trade in groundnut, jowar, turmeric and *gul.* Besides these commodities, trade in *tur,* safflower, bajra, gram, *udid,* coriander, wheat, maize, chillis, *chavali,* tamarind and cattle is regulated under the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act. Groundnut cultivation extends over an area of 19,329.826 hectares, (47,765 acres) whereas jowar covers an area of 42,641.764 hectares (1,05,370 acres) in the Tasgaon taluka.

Most of the trade transactions are held in the market-yard. Local oil millers purchase groundnut for oil crushing. Groundnut seed as well as oil is exported from Tasgaon. The main items of export are groundnut, jowar, turmeric, *gul,* coriander and gram. The destinations of export trade are Sangli, Kolhapur, Karad, Nasik, Shrirampur, Belapur, Ahmadnagar, Bombay, Dhulia and Madras. The general commission agents at Tasgaon purchase the goods from the agriculturists and supply the same

* Ferozabad is the most important centre of bangle manufacture.

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to traders from various places. The annual turnover of trade of an average commission agent at Tasgaon is about ten lakhs of rupees.

The period of brisk trade is from November to March. Business is lowest during the rainy season. There are four oil crushing mills at Tasgaon which export oil out of the district. There is a heavy demand for oil-cake in the district and the neighbouring district of Kolhapur. Banking facilities are available at Tasgaon. The branches of the District Central Co-operative Bank, the Urban Co-operative Bank and the Bank of Karad provide loans to traders. The main routes of trade from Tasgaon are, (1) Sangli-Tasgaon-Mayani road, (2) Karad-Tasgaon road and (3) Tasgaon-Kirloskarwadi road. Besides, railway transport is available *via* Bhilwadi railway station.

Islampur.

Islampur situated on the Sangli-Peth road has attracted wholesale trade from the entire Walwa taluka. Much of the wholesale trade at Takari has shifted to Islampur because of the easy transport facilities available there. It is a centre of trade in groundnut, jowar, *gul*, bajra, gram, *tur*, and coriander. Jowar and groundnut are, however, the most important items.

Groundnut is exported to Bombay, whereas jowar is sent to Kolhapur, Konkan and Poona. Islampur has trade links with Poona, Bombay, Kolhapur and towns in the Konkan. Commoditis are sent out in trucks.

Jath.

Jath is a wholesale market of secondary importance. Most of the area around this town is barren and unproductive. Consequently the volume of trade is not large. The main articles of trade are jowar, groundnut, cotton, safflower, and coriander. Statistics of the average annual arrivals at the Jath market are given below:—

Groundnut	..	75,000	bags.	Chillis	..	2,000	bags.
Jowar	..	20,000	bags.	*Mathi*	..	2,500	bags.
Cotton	..	25,000	*atakis**	Bajra	..	2,500	bags.
Coriander	..	10,000	bags.	Gram	..	1,000	bags.
Safflower	..	10,000	bags.	*Tur*	..	1,000	bags.

Jath has trade links with Bijapur and Pandharpur. A sizeable volume of commodities is exported to these markets. Groundnut, gram, *tur, mug, matki,* safflower and cotton are exported to Bijapur, cotton is sent to Pandharpur, and chillis are sent to Bombay and Poona. Jath is famous for the weekly cattle market.

The Bank of Jath and the Urban Co-operative Bank provide for the financial requirements of the local trade.

* *Ataki* is a unit used for the weighing of cottton. It is equivalent to 128 seers.

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Banking, Trade and Commerce.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.

Co-operative Marketing.

The history of co-operative marketing in Sangli district can be traced back to the year 1926-27, when two marketing societies were established in the district. The district is very proud of the valuable progress achieved in the marketing of agricultural produce through co-operatives and has always been in the forefront in the co-operative movement in Maharashtra. Obviously this has yielded benefits to the agriculturist who gets a proper return for his produce. Assured prices for his goods, which is one of the major incentives to increased production has been made possible to a great extent by the co-operative institutions.

There are eight major co-operative marketing societies* in the district which sell agricultural produce on a commission basis. They have established their *adat* shops in the various markets and sub-markets in the district. They purchase and sell the agricultural produce assembled in the market. They also act as general commission agents. In some cases they offer competitive prices for the produce.

The following table gives the volume and value of trade handled by co-operative societies in Sangli market area in 1961-62:—

TABLE No. 25

Commodity (1)	Quintals (2)	Value of turnover (3)
		Rs.
(1) Groundnut (unshelled)	22,032	15,42,310
(2) Groundnut (shelled)	115	11,600
(3) Turmeric	14,344	17,21,400
(4) *Gul*	20,391	9,25,480
(5) Chillis	2,060	3,09,150
(6) Cotton	1,681	1,85,020
(7) *Tur*	689	27,600
(8) Gram	1,221	54,990
(9) *Mug*	291	11,680
(10) *Mataki*	170	7,160
(11) *Udid*	351	21,120
(12) Safflower	2,989	1,49,500
(13) Coriander	313	18,840
(14) Castor seed	59	3,600
(15) Jowar	24,032	10,81,485
(16) Bajra	1,080	43,240
(17) Wheat	1,805	1,08,360
(18) Maize	393	13,003
Total		62,35,538

* (1) Shri Ganapati Sale and Purchase Co-operative Union, Sangli.
(2) Varna Valley Purchase and Sale Union, Islampur.
(3) Karad Purchase and Sale Society (Sangli branch).
(4) Khanapur Taluka Purchase and Sale Society, Vita.
(5) Miraj Group Multipurpose Co-operative Society, Miraj.
(6) Jath Taluka Co-operative Purchase and Sale Society, Jath.
(7) Vividh Karyakari Sahakari Society, Jath.
(8) Tasgaon Taluka Co-operative Purchase and Sale Union, Tasgaon.

The table given below shows the transactions of the co-operative societies in the Vita market in 1961-62:—

TABLE No. 26

Commodity (1)	Quantity (Quintal) (2)	Value (3)	Percentage to total arrivals (4)
		Rs.	
Groundnut	2,468	1,73,687	35
Turmeric	7	1,106	14
Gul	1,374	50,046	57
Coriander	16	728	28
Safflower	4	200	40
Jowar	440	18,210	30
Bajra	53	2,544	16
Tur	57	2,651	11
Gram	19	936	26

The Walwa taluka has made remarkable progress in co-operative marketing. The Varna Valley Purchase and Sale Union (Islampur) is a leading society. The following table gives the statistics of transactions by co-operatives in Islampur market in 1961-62:—

TABLE No. 27

Commodity (1)	Quantity (Quintals) (2)	Percentage to total turnover (3)
Groundnut	3,104	26
Gul	130	5
Coriander	12	100
Jowar	2,844	15
Tur	59	21
Bajra	14	35
Gram	156	17

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The volume of turnover of co-operatives at the Tasgaon market in 1961-62 is given in the following table:—

TABLE No. 28

VOLUME OF TURNOVER OF CO-OPERATIVES

Commodity (1)	Quantity in bags (2)	Value (3)	Percentage to total turnover (4)
		Rs.	
Groundnut	22,945	7,24,815	30
Turmeric	1,549	1,43,934	35
Gul	849 (lumps)	11,938	15
Tur	463	17,038	37
Safflower	72	3,393	27
Jowar	7,417	3,24,122	32
Bajra	183	6,639	41
Gram	576	26,899	26
Udid	344	18,060	30
Coriander	546	12,796	29
Wheat	471	29,013	30
Maize	89	2,456	24
Chillis	314	3,444	34
Chavali .. .	153	7,405	33
Tamarind ..	25	1,550	3

Statistics about the turnover of the three prominent societies in 1961-62 are given below:

TABLE No. 29

(I) VARNA VALLEY CO-OPERATIVE PURCHASE AND SALE UNION, 1961-62

Commodity* (1)	Islampur (2)	Sangli (3)	Tasgaon (4)	Wadgaon (5)	Shirala (6)
Groundnut ..	3,926	6,065	10,662	4,655	2,775
Gul	65	28,845	380	99	..
Turmeric .. .	.	1,520	904	..	..
Jowar	1,771	265	2,701	1,982	140
Coriander	31	124	202	49	..
Chillis	6	2,264	61	11	..
Gram	92	33	190	206	..
Wheat	36	97	250	32	..
Other foodgrains ..	188	120	722	124	15
Others	108	100	576	212	68

*Figures in bags except in the case of *gul*.
Figures of *gul* in number of lumps.

TABLE No. 30

(II) GANAPATI CO-OPERATIVE PURCHASE AND SALE UNION, 1961-62

Commodity* (1)	Total turnover in quintals (2)
Groundnut	13,57,438
Gul	7,89,772
Turmeric	6,89,751
Chillis	1,07,330
Cotton	1,31,902
Jowar	11,58,939
Bajra	56,772
Wheat	64,724
Gram	47,927
Tur	31,392
Coriander	26,252
Safflower	38,771
Karanji	8,502
Tobacco	31,717

TABLE No. 31

(III) TASGAON TALUKA CO-OPERATIVE PURCHASE AND SALE UNION, 1961-62

Commodity (1)	Turnover (2)
Jowar	1,899
Gram	122
Groundnut	4,280
Gul	285
Turmeric	295
Total of all Commodities handled..	7,236

Controls and Fair Price Shops.

The history of controls and rationing in the Walwa, Khanapur and Tasgaon talukas† dates back to 1942. Due to the general shortage of consumer goods caused by the World War II, the Government of India introduced countrywide rationing. Rice, Wheat, Jowar, bajra, sugar, *gul,* kerosene and cloth

*Total of branches at Sangli, Miraj, Tasgaon and Jath.

†Information on this subject, regarding the then Princely States merged in the present Sangli district is not available.

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Controls and Fair Price Shops.

were distributed through ration shops. Sale and purchase of these articles in the open market and their movement were prohibited by law. The Government had introduced the 'compulsory levy system'. Under this system a certain proportion of the grains produced was procured from the producer. This system continued in its original form till 1948 when the first step towards decontrol was taken. The levy system was discontinued from 1948. The food situation improved to some extent after 1950. The Government of India therefore decided to relax the extent of controls in 1950. This was followed by complete decontrol in 1954.

Limited controls were imposed again in 1956 due to the adverse food situation. This measure was accompanied by the starting of fair price shops and restrictions on the movement of certain foodgrains. The years 1959, 1962, 1963 and 1964 witnessed steep rise in the prices of rice, wheat, jowar and many other foodgrains. This prompted the Government to establish more fair price shops and import of foodgrains. The food situation further worsened in 1964 and 1965.

The Government of Maharashtra therefore introduced informal rationing and monopoly procurement of rice, jowar and wheat by the Government agencies. Under the procurement system the Government purchases these articles from the agriculturists at the stipulated prices. Though these prices are higher than those prevailing during the previous seasons, they are much lower than those prevailing in the open market. Sale of these foodgrains by the agriculturist to the private trader is banned under Government orders. The Government thus became the monopoly purchaser.

The grains thus procured are distributed through fair price shops at stipulated prices. A part of the grain store is kept as buffer stocks to meet any adverse situation arising from shortages. Besides the indigenous stock of grains, wheat and rice are imported from foreign countries to meet the demand.

The fair-price shops are recognised by the Government. For the purpose of recognition of fair-price shops co-operative societies and village panchayats are given a preference over private shopkeepers. These shops are controlled and inspected by the Government officials. They are required to maintain (i) a stock register, (ii) a visit book and (iii) daily sale register. The issue of cash memo in respect of each sale is compulsory. The consumers are issued household ration cards which are renewed periodically.

At present there is complete rationing in respect of sugar, and informal rationing in respect of rice, wheat and jowar.

Retail Trade. *Grocery.*

Grocery is the most important group of retail shops. In every village and town there are a number of grocery shops. Grocery (*Kirana*) shops sell a number of articles such as, jowar, wheat, *tur dal, masur dal,* bajra, *gul,* coconuts, betel-nuts, coconut oil, groundnut oil, kerosene, soaps, spices, chillis, common salt, dry fruits, pencils, match boxes, and petty stationery goods. Most of the grocers in the district obtain the goods from wholesalers at Sangli. However, some of the big grocers at Sangli bring the goods from Poona, Kolhapur and Bombay as well. Grocers in small villages obtain the articles from Sangli or nearby towns.

Capital investment of a grocer's shop may vary between Rs. 1,000 and Rs. 50,000. Most of the retail grocers are found to employ one or two servants.

Stationery and Cutlery Shops.

Stationery and cutlery shops deal in a wide variety of articles including provisions.

The articles are imported mostly from Bombay, Poona and Bangalore. The smaller shop-keepers purchase their stock-in-trade from wholesalers at Sangli or nearby towns. Capital investment in stationery shops varies from Rs. 1,000 to Rs. 50,000. Business activity is usually brisk from October to April. An average stationery shop-keeper is found to employ one or two employees.

Cloth.

Almost every town has a number of cloth shops. Sangli is, however, the biggest centre of retail trade in the district. There is retail as well as wholesale trade in cloth at Sangli. But wholesale transactions are restricted to the coarse and medium varieties produced in the local textile mills and powerlooms in the district. Almost all of these textile manufacturing units are located at Sangli, Madhavanagar and Miraj. Handloom cloth is produced in considerable quantities at Sangli and Budhgaon. All these textiles are sold on a wholesale basis in Sangli town. There are 5 wholesalers and about 50 retailers. Besides, there are a number of petty retailers.

The superfine and medium varieties of cloth are imported mainly from Bombay, as also from Sholapur, Madras, Malegaon, Ahmedabad and Bangalore. All the varieties of cloth, *viz.*, poplins, shirting, suiting, long cloth, woollen cloth, terylene, rayon, decron, sarees, *lugadi, khan,* sheets, lawns and voiles are sold at Sangli. The sale of zari fabrics, such as, *shalu, paithani, khan, uparne* has declined during the last few years as they have gone out of fashion. Their place has been taken slowly by the modern synthetic fabrics.

This trade is brisk during the period between October and May. Sales reach the peak during the marriage season, and fall during the rainy season.

Hosiery.

The hosiery trade is more or less of a seasonal character. Hosiery shops in Sangli sell caps, readymade garments, underwears, sweaters and mufflers. Readymade garments are brought from

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Bombay and Poona. Hosiery goods are imported from Ludhiana, Lucknow, Kanpur, Delhi and Bombay. There are about 50 hosiery shops in Sangli town, of which 15 are of large size. The turnover of sales is high during November, December and January.

Retail Trade.

Hardware.

After Poona, Sangli is the biggest centre of retail trade in hardware in south Maharashtra. There are 15 hardware merchants at Sangli, of whom eight are big merchants with an annual turnover of one lakh of rupees and above.

The merchants import most of the articles from Bombay and Calcutta. They purchase their requirements from the Bombay merchants directly. Their stock-in-trade includes iron bars, nails, screws, pipes, chains, steel sheets, building materials, springs, varnishes, paints and cots. The Sangli market attracts purchasers from all over the district as well as from the neighbouring district of Kolhapur.

Utensils.

There are about ten shops dealing in utensils at Sangli. Of them four are big. The stock-in-trade consists of brass, copper, aluminium and stainless steel utensils. Some varieties of utensils are manufactured at Miraj and Sangli. But mainly they are imported from Poona and Bombay. The turnover is high during the period between November and April when there is a large demand from the agriculturists. The utensil merchants at Sangli have formed an association, (1) to reduce the severe competition in the business, (2) to redress grievances of the trade in a united manner, and (3) to represent their case before the Governing Authorities.

Tea.

There are four wholesale dealers of tea leaves and powders at Sangli. Besides, there are a number of retail traders and grocers who sell tea powder. Tea is imported from South India. It is brought directly from the merchants in the plantation area as well as from Cochin. The tea merchants purchase their merchandise on commission basis as well as on outright cash basis. Most of the dealers in the district bring tea from Sangli.

Timber.

Sangli town has quite a big timber market. There are 24 timber merchants in the town. The total annual turnover of trade at Sangli exceeds Rs. 25 lakhs It is mainly a retail market catering to the needs of the people in the district.

About 90 per cent of the timber is brought from Karnatak region, and the rest from the Western Ghats. It is brought mainly by trucks. The price of timber varies between Rs. 15 and Rs. 25 per cubic feet.

Bangles.

Miraj is an important centre of wholesale trade in bangles. There are eight bangle dealers. Bangles are re-exported from Miraj to other places in the district as well as to Satara, Belgaum and Goa.

Fairs.

Fairs still retain their importance as centres of trade. They offer ample opportunities to petty traders to display their goods and carry on brisk sales. A wide variety of articles are handled at

fairs. They include sweetmeats, fruits, dry fruits, stationery, cutlery, crockery, toys, perfumery, toilets, watches, furniture, cloth, ready-made clothes, utensils, footwear, tobacco, agricultural implements, ropes, cattle, etc. The transactions at the fairs are done on cash basis.

Fairs.

Bazars.

Bazars were important centres of trade in the past. They ranked next to wholesale trade centres. The rural populace used to purchase their day-to-day requirements of articles from the weekly bazars. In the set-up of trade existing then the number of retail shops, especially in villages, was much less than at present. Hence the consumer was required to purchase his provision from the weekly bazars. They, however, are gradually losing their former importance, firstly, because of the developed means of transport which enable the distant producers to bring their goods to the markets; secondly because of the increase in the number of retail shops; and lastly because of the importance attached to centres of wholesale trade.

Hawkers.

Hawkers were important constituents of retail trade in the past. Hawking provided a means of livelihood to a number of persons. The hawkers used to bring their merchandise from nearby towns.

These itinerary traders who form a part of retailers even at present, sell vegetables, fresh fruits, dry fruits, nuts, sprouted grains, coconuts, betel-leaves, pickles, fish, bread, sweetmeats, cloth, hosiery, ice-cream, tea leaves, toffees, utensils, earthenware, toys, stationery, cutlery, grocery, oil, *agarbattis*, *bidis*, spices, footwear, and a number of other miscellaneous articles. They purchase their stock-in-trade from wholesale dealers in towns either on credit or on cash basis. They sell the goods, very often, on a narrow profit margin. They carry the articles either in hand-carts or as head-loads.

The Miraj, Sangli and Islampur municipalities have framed rules and made it compulsory for a hawker to obtain a licence. Every hawker has to pay a licence fee.

Pedlars.

Pedlars in rural areas are the counterpart of hawkers in the urban areas. Pedlars are to the villages what hawkers are to the towns. The following extract throws a light on their role. "Below the village shopkeepers are the pedlars and hawkers who are generally *Marwari* and local *Vanis*, *Telis*, *Kasars*, and *Shimpis*. These men travel from village to village during the six or eight months of the fair season" *

Their stock-in-trade includes a variety of commodities, such as groceries, fruits, ice-cream, vegetables, spices, ready-made clothes, sarees, tea leaves, bread, biscuits, sweetmeats, ayurvedic medicines, etc. They sell their goods on cash basis as well as against food-grains. Barter transactions are also prevalent. They purchase the goods from the nearby towns or bazar places in the district. They carry the goods on bicycles or in buses. Some of them carry head loads.

* Gazetteer of Bombay Presidency, Vol. XIX, Satara District, 1885.

CHAPTER 6. Banking, Trade and Commerce. TRADE AND COMMERCE. Trade Associations.

Association of traders is a natural outcome of progressive, organized and large-scale trade. Sangli, being an entrepot centre of trade, has a Chamber of Commerce and some associations of traders. These associations primarily aim at solving the problems of the trading community and at making available to individual traders various facilities and promoting security and stability to their trade.

Chamber of Commerce.

The Chamber of Commerce, Sangli, is one of the oldest organisations of its kind in the South Maharashtra region. It was established in 1910 and registered under the Societies Registration Act in 1939. The objects of this body are to safeguard the interests of traders, settle disputes among them, help them solve any dispute between traders and the market committee and to redress grievances of the traders in respect of sales-tax, income-tax and other related problems. The Chamber of Commerce collects statistics and data for the information of the interested parties. It also helps the members in matters of banking, insurance and transport of goods and takes a leading part in regularising the market practices at Sangli. The Chamber aims at preserving cordial relationships among the traders and general commission agents.

The Chamber has a membership of 151 traders. The managing committee of the Chamber is headed by a President, and comprises 10 members The managing committee is assisted by subject committees dealing with various matters of interest. Among them, the working committee and disputes committee are the important ones

Bhusar Vyapar Mandal.

This is an association of merchants dealing in foodgrains. Like many other associations, it aims at fostering the interests of the merchants and at redressing the grievances of the traders. At present the membership of the Mandal is 50.

Weights and Measures

*Weights and measures during 1885**: *Weights.*—The units used for weighing precious stones, diamonds, rubies, emeralds, and pearls were four grains of wheat or sixteen grains of rice or one *ratti*. Twenty four *rattis* made one *tak*. These weights were square or round, and were made of flint. The table for weighing gold and silver was eight *gunjas*=1 *masa*, 12 *masas*=one *tola*, 24 *tolas*=one *sher*, and 40 *shers* to one *man*. The *gunja* is the seed of *Abrus precatorius*. The *masa* and *tola* were made of any metal or chinaware. Iron, zinc, brass, lead, tin and other cheaper metals, and cotton were weighed by the table—two *chhataks*=one *adpav*, two *adpavs* one *pav*, two *pavs*, one *achher*, two *achhers*=one *sher*, 13 shers=one *man*, and 20 *mans*=one *Khandi*. Spices, sugar, molasses, coffee and drugs were weighed by the table—two *savashers*=one *adisari*, two *adisaris*=one *pasri*, two *pasris*=one *dhada*, four *dhadas*=one *man*, and twenty *mans*=one *Khandi*. The *savasher* weighed 30 Imperial rupees.

* Gazetteer of Bombay Presidency, Vol. XIX, Satara District, 1885.

Weights and Measures.

Measures.—Rice and other grains and salt were generally sold by measures, and rarely by weight. The table was—

2 *nilve*	= 1 *kolve* ;	2 *kolve*	= 1 *chipte* ;
2 *chipte*	= 1 *mapte* ;	2 *mapte*	= 1 *sher* ;
2 *sher*	= 1 *adisari* ;	2 *adisari*	= 1 *payli* ;
16 *payli*	= 1 *man* ;	20 *mans*	= 1 *khandi* ;

These measures were shaped like an hourglass, and were made of wood, iron, copper or brass and had a Government stamp pressed on them. Milk, ghee and oil were sold either by weights or measures. The weights were the same as those used in selling copper and sugar. The measures were 2 *pavshers* = 1 *achher*, and 2 *achhers* = 1 *sher*. The *pavsher* weighed 20 Imperial rupees. In Khanapur and Tasgaon sub-divisions oil was measured by a ladle or *pali*, and a set of small metal bowls.

Length was measured in terms of *gaj* and *var* made of iron, brass, copper or wood. The *gaj* was about 35 inches, and was divided into 24 *tasus*. The *var* was about one *tasu* longer than the *gaj*. Except silk waistcloth or *pitambars*, brocade, shoulder cloths or *dupetas*, and other costly articles which were sold by weight, cloth and piecegoods were sold by length. The surface measures were either the English foot and yard, or the local cubits or *hats** and spans or *vits*. Timber was measured by the 1 cubit or by the *gaj*. Before the introduction of the revenue survey in 1853, the *bigha* was used as a land measure—5 5/6 *hats* made one *kathi*, 20 *kathis* = one *pand*, and 20 *pands* = one *bigha*. Since the introduction of the revenue survey, the *bigha* measure has given place to the English acre.

Metric Weights and Measures.

The old weights and measures, however, differed from place to place and also sometimes for each commodity at the same place. In order to put an end to the confusion resulting from such a chaotic state of affairs and to adopt a uniform system for the whole country, the Government of India enacted the Standards of Weights and Measures Act in 1956. This Act laid down the basic units under the metric system which derives its nomenclature from the primary unit of measurement, the metre. The decimal system is applied to the units of weights and measures to indicate multiples.

In pursuance of the above Act of the Government of India, the then Government of Bombay enacted the Bombay Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Act, 1958, for the enforcement of standard units based on metric system in the State. Adoption of the system began in 1958 and was completed by the end of 1966.

* The *hat* is the length from the elbow-joint to the end of the middle finger.

CHAPTER 7—COMMUNICATIONS

INTRODUCTION.

REFERENCES ARE FOUND REGARDING ROUTES CONNECTING THE THEN BIG CITIES like Pratishthan or Avanti, Tagar or Sthanak, during the pre-Bauddh period. The caves at Ajanta, Ellora or Bhaje are considered to be constructed on these highways to facilitate the journeys of travellers. In later days, about 16th and 17th century A. D., the routes and roads were generally marked out either to link the forts or any pilgrim centres of considerable importance. When we come to still later period smooth and quick movement of military seems to be the chief aim behind the construction of railways and roads. This was especially visible during the British period of Indian History. The needs and conveniences of passengers were not taken into consideration

After the advent of Independence the main guiding principle behind the construction of any road or rail track was passengers' convenience and welfare of the travelling public. Other factors like joining of market places, covering economically prosperous villages, joining district headquarters with taluka towns, joining important towns to nearby railway stations and joining centres of pilgrimage and objects of interest are also taken into consideration.

In the latter part of the 18th century, the old Gazetteer mentions that, there were two principal routes above the Sahyadris, one, the Poona-Kolhapur and Karnatak route which ran by the little Bor pass in Poona district, the Salpa pass on the north-east of Goregaon, the Nhavi pass at south-east of Goregaon and then the other, the present Satara-Tasgaon road running through Tasgaon and Miraj or by Tasgaon and Masur to Karad.

The general nature of the roads and public traffic in the district was far from satisfactory in the 19th century. As the emphasis was laid mainly on self-sufficiency of village economy, means of communications by themselves never attracted particular attention. The importance of roads and traffic connections was not felt necessary as they had not become an indispensable part of the economy, as they are now. There were a few tracks, euphemistically called roads. They were chiefly earthen tracks designed for bullock-carts or *baggis* to ply only in fair season. These roads, becoming rough and dry in summer and winter, were sufficient for the purposes of traffic and social intercourse. Communications along them were highly improbable during monsoon and one

CHAPTER 7.

Communications.

INTRODUCTION.

forced to travel in that duration was carried in a *doli* or a palanquin or on horseback. In 1885*, the district was fairly away from the roads which were generally feeders to trunk lines in the British and other native state territory leading to important trade centres. In Miraj taluka, the chief roads were the Athni-Chiplun, Sangli-Akli, Sangli-Uplavi and Bijapur-Pandharpur roads. The Athni-Chiplun was the highway running from Athni in Belgaum district to Chiplun in Ratnagiri district. Passing by Miraj and Sangli it joined the Poona-Belgaum trunk road at Peth in the Walwa taluka of Satara. The other roads were connecting towns like Kolhapur, Budhgaon, Kavalapur, Kumta, Kavathe Mahankal, Mangalvedha, Sangola, etc.

The political as well as the economic set-up changed at the turn of the century and was mainly responsible for the later development, namely, the transport facilities in the form of roads and railways. As political and economic peace prevailed for more than a century as a result of consolidation of a stable rule, the ideas regarding safety, security and travel had also changed while on the economic front appearance of new commodities in the market, rise in the standard of living, foreign goods flooding the local markets, increasing dependence on medical and monetary facilities available in urban sector—all these necessitated the development of roads, railways and other transport facilities. Villages no longer could maintain their old position of self-sufficient economic units and the socio-economic transactions between rural and urban sectors became unavoidable. Railways were laid, new roads constructed, old ones repaired and properly maintained and thus the network of these transport veins started functioning infusing new blood of economic prosperity in the life of the district. Roads were now considered not as a competition to railway but as complementary to railways for carrying goods and passengers.

RAILWAYS.

Historical Background

The history of railways in the Sangli district, dates back to the last quarter of the 19th century when the Southern Maratha Railway Company constructed the rail tracks between Koregaon and Miraj in June, 1887, followed by linking Miraj to Belgaum in December 1887. The total length covered was 260.51 km (161.88 miles). The then proposed system of railways in the district was completed by 1907. In that year, the Southern Maratha Railway Company was amalgamated with the Madras Railway Company to form the Madras and Southern Maratha Company which was popularly known as M. S. M. Railway. The entire system of railways worked by the M. S. M. Railway Company was taken over by the Government of India in 1944. Sangli district, before 1949, had two privately owned railway lines. One was the Kolhapur-Miraj line belonging to Kolhapur Durbar and the other the Sangli-Miraj line laid by Sangli Durbar. Both these lines were merged with the M. S. M. Railway in 1949 with the merger of

* Compiled from the account of roads in Kolhapur Gazetteer, 1886, p. 328.

CHAPTER 7. Communications. RAILWAYS.

these princely States in the Indian Union. In 1952, Indian Railways were regrouped and the M. S. M. Railway was grouped under Southern Railway. The Poona-Bangalore, Miraj-Sangli, Miraj-Kolhapur lines of the Southern Railway and Miraj-Latur line of the Central Railway operate in the district. The first three lines are metre gauge while the Miraj-Pandharpur line has narrow gauge tracks. The total railway length in the district is 171.4 kilometres out of which 86.6 km are covered by the Southern Railway and the remaining 84.8 km by the Central Railway.

Schemes have been prepared and are going to be worked out during the Fourth Plan regarding conversion of Miraj-Latur line into metre gauge and its extension up to Parli. Notable among the other schemes is the conversion of Poona-Miraj section into broad gauge. This will definitely assist the traders and merchants in the district as it would facilitate their carrying goods directly to Bombay and other cities on broad gauge lines.

Poona-Bangalore Route.

Linking two important cities like Poona and Bangalore, the line enters Sangli district at Bhavaninagar station which is 53 km from Miraj, the important junction of the district, and leaves the district at Mhaisal, 9 km from Miraj. Miraj-Poona branch work of this line was completed in four phases. Londa-Belgaum line was opened on 21st March 1887, Belgaum to Miraj line covering 138.21 km (85.88 miles) was opened in December 1887, and Miraj to Koregaon covering 122.31 km (76 miles) in June 1887. The Koregaon to Poona line measuring 135.19 km (84 miles) was completed by November 1890.

In the south-east stretch of this important railway line of about 53 km in the district, there are seven stations including Miraj. The distance of each of the station in km from Miraj is as follows: —

(1) Madhavnagar—10 km,
(2) Nandre—19 km,
(3) Bhilvadi—26 km,
(4) Kirloskarwadi—39 km,
(5) Takari—48 km,
(6) Bhavaninagar—53 km.

The line is of importance to the district as it connects the industrially developed areas of the district with the rest of the region. Kondalwadi which was a small station has thrived into an industrially developed town now renamed as Kirloskarwadi. The railway has no doubt played its part in this development. Madhavnagar is also another very important station on this line in the district.

Miraj Junction.

Miraj junction has an important place in the economy of the district. Three railway lines start from Miraj, *viz*., the Sangli-Miraj, the Miraj-Kolhapur and the Miraj-Latur. The station is provided with all amenities. There are first class, second class and third class waiting rooms, a book-stall, tea-stalls, refreshment rooms, a fruit-stall, etc., on the station. Potable water is also provided.

CHAPTER 7. Communications. RAILWAYS. Miraj-Kolhapur Route.

This metre gauge railway line between Miraj and Kolhapur was opened for traffic on 21st April 1891. The line about 48.28 km (30 miles) in length belonged to Kolhapur Durbar but was managed by ex-Southern Maratha Railway. After the merger of the princely states with the Indian Union and subsequent nationalisation of railways, it was merged into the Southern Railway. All its four stations except Miraj junction are in Kolhapur district. It is mainly a passenger line but has a considerable goods traffic in commodities like gur and chillis. There are four direct passenger trains from Kolhapur to Sangli *via* Miraj and one from Kolhapur to Miraj.

Miraj-Sangli Route.

This railway track serves the district by linking two important cities in the district, namely Miraj and Sangli. The line was opened on 1st April 1907, covering a distance of about 9.66 km (6 miles) and was merged with M. S. M. Railway on 1st August 1949. This railway track was constructed at a cost of Rs. 1,81,000. Vishrambag and Wanlesswadi which are the two stations on the line can now well be regarded as well developed suburban towns of Sangli city. Vishrambag 6.44 km (4 miles) from Miraj, is an established educational centre and an awakening industrial suburb whereas Wanlesswadi is famous for its medical institutions.

Miraj-Latur Route.

Covering a distance of about 84 km in the district up to Jath Road, this narrow gauge railway line connects the district to important cities like Pandharpur and Barshi in Sholapur district and Latur in Osmanabad district. Miraj-Pandharpur part of the railway line which was formerly known as Barsi Light Railway was opened for traffic in November 1927. Following stations with their distance in km (in brackets) from Miraj are in the Sangli district: Bolwad (6), Bedag (12), Arag (18), Bellanki (24), Salgare (33), Agran Dhulgaon (41), Kavathe Mahankal (46), Langerpeth (57), Dhalgaon (62), Gulvanchi (72), and Jath Road (80). Only two passenger trains run on this line.

TABLE No. 1

RAILWAY STATIONS IN EACH TALUKA OF SANGLI DISTRICT IN 1964

Taluka	Number of Railway Stations	Names of Railway Stations
Jath ..	2	1. Gulvanchi (72) 2. Jath Road (80).
Khanapur ..	Nil	..
Miraj ..	15	1. Madhavnagar (10), 2. Miraj, 3. Mhaisal (9) 4. Wanlesswadi (4), 5. Vishrambag (6), 6. Sangli (10), 7. Bolwad (6), 8. Bedag (12), 9. Arag (18), 10. Bellanki (28), 11. Salgare (33), 12. Agran Dhulgaon (41), 13. Kavathe Mahankal (46), 14. Langerpeth (57), 15. Dhalgaon (62).
Shirala ..	Nil	..
Tasgaon ..	3	1. Kirloskarwadi (39), 2. Bhilwadi (26), 3. Nandre (19).
Walwa ..	2	1. Takari (48), 2. Bhavaninagar (33).

Note.—Figures in brackets indicate the distance in kilometres from Miraj Junction.

As compared to the other districts, Sangli district is well served with roads.

Roads are classified according to their importance into five categories *viz.* (1) National Highways, (2) State Highways, (3) Major District Roads, (4) Other district Roads, and (5) Village Roads. The following table gives the statistics of roads in Sangli district.

TABLE No. 2

STATISTICS OF ROADS IN SANGLI DISTRICT, 1964

Category	Metalled		Unmetalled		Total	
	Km	(Miles)	Km	(Miles)	Km	(Miles)
State Highways	31·08	(19·31)	5·63	(3·50)	36·71	(22·81)
Major District Roads ..	235·05	(146·06)	490·97	(305·08)	726·02	(451·14)
Other District Roads ..	63·37	(39·38)	341·09	(211·95)	404·46	(251·33)
Village Roads	3·43	(2·13)	538·00	(334·31)	541·43	(336·44)
Village Roads not included in road planning.	2·41	(1·50)	517·41	(321·51)	519·82	(323·01)
Total ..	335·34	(208·38)	1,893·10	(1,176·35)	2,228·44	(1,384·73)

National Highways.

National Highways are defined as the main arterial or trunk roads running through the length and breadth of the country, and together forming a system connecting major cities, ports, capitals of states and other important highways. They are maintained by the Buildings and Communications Department of the State from Central Government funds. They are generally well surfaced, bridged and properly maintained taking into consideration their importance from the point of view of national economy and general welfare.

Poona-Bangalore Road.

This National Highway starts from Poona, traverses Poona and Satara districts and enters the district of Sangli at 177.23 km (mile 110/1) near Kasegaon. In its course from north to south, with a leaning towards the south-east it traverses a total distance of 29.57 km (18 miles and 3 furlongs), through the Walwa taluka. It leaves the district at 206.80 km (128/4 miles) where there is a bridge across the Warna river.

In its run through the district it touches the following places at the mile numbers indicated in brackets: Kasegaon 180.25 km (miles 112), Nerla 186.68 km. (miles 116), Peth 189.90 km (miles 118), Kumeri 194.73 km (miles 121), Yeda 197.95 km (miles 123), Itkarl 199.56 km (miles 124), Yelur 202.78 km (miles 126) and

CHAPTER 7. Communications. ROADS.

Kanegaon 206.80 km (miles 128/4). Peth is a junction on this road with Peth-Sangli road, a state highway and Peth-Shirala road, a major district road. Thus, this highway is linked with Sangli town by Peth-Sangli road at 189.90 km (miles 118).

The surface of this highway is asphalted and sufficiently broad. It is fully bridged and motorable throughout the year. Linking two important cities like Poona and Bangalore, it plays an important role in the economic life of the district.

State Highways.

State Highways are defined as all other main arterial roads of a State connecting themselves with National Highways or other State Highways, district headquarters, important cities and centres of trade. They serve as main arteries of traffic to and from district roads. These roads, which are usually maintained by the Buildings and Communications Department of the State, are either asphalted or metalled and are motorable throughout the year, except that sometimes traffic may be interrupted during heavy monsoons.

The State Highways passing through Sangli district are: (1) Ratnagiri-Kolhapur-Miraj-Bijapur road, (2) Miraj-Pandharpur road, (3) Guhagar-Chiplun-Karad-Jath-Bijapur road, (4) Peth-Sangli road, (5) Sangli-Miraj road, (6) Sangli-Tasgaon-Vita-Mayani-Phaltan road and (7) Karad-Tasgaon road.

Karad-Tasgaon Road.

The Karad-Tasgaon road starts from Karad in Satara district and enters Sangli district in 16.90 km (mile 10/4). Its general alignment is from north-west to south-east up to Tasgaon. It traverses the Walwa and Tasgaon talukas and terminates at Tasgaon road junction. This road runs almost parallel to the Poona-Bangalore railway line for some distance and crosses the latter near Kundal. It forms a link between the important towns of Karad and Tasgaon. The total length of this road in Sangli district is about 52.30 km (32 miles and 4 furlongs) up to its junction with the Tasgaon-Ashta road at Nimni.

The road touches the following places in its stretch:—

(1) Bhavaninagar (mile 13)—Inspection Bungalow.
(2) Dudhari 24.14 km (mile 15).
(3) Takari 25.75 km (mile 16).
(4) Kundal 32.19 km (mile 20).
(5) Palus 38.62 km (mile 24).
(6) Bambavade 41.84 km (mile 26).
(7) Nimni 52.30 km (mile 32/4).
(8) Tasgaon 62.76 km (mile 39).
(9) Kavathe Ekunde 61.16 km (mile 38).
(10) Kakadwadi 65.98 km (mile 41).

The road does not cross any big river, but crosses some big *nalas* where there are no cross drainage works at present.

State Highways.

Karad-Tasgaon Road.

The following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it:—

Place of junction	*Name of road*
(1) Takari 25·75 km (mile 16) ..	Islampur-Takari (M.D.R.).
(2) Kundal 33·39 km (mile 20/6)	Vita-Kundal (M.D.R.).
(3) 44·86 km (mile No. 27/7)	Satara-Tasgaon (M.D.R.).
(4) Nimni 52·30 km (mile 32/4)	Tasgaon-Ashta (M.D.R.).
(5) Tasgaon	Sangli-Tasgaon-Vita-Mayani (S.H.).

The whole length of this road is metalled, and is motorable throughout the year except for short interruptions during heavy rains. These traffic interruptions occur mainly at the Takari *nala* 27.96 km (mile 17/3) and the Kundal *nala* 32.79 km (mile 20/3).

Peth-Sangli Road.

This highway emanates from 189.70 km (mile 118) of the Poona-Bangalore national highway at Peth in this district. It runs towards the south-east up to Sangli town and covers a total distance of 43.05 km (26 miles and 6 furlongs). It traverses the Walwa and Miraj talukas and serves as a vital link between Sangli, and Karad, Satara and Poona.

It touches the following places in its stretch:—

(1) Islampur 4.83 km (mile 3); (2) Ashta 22.53 km (mile 14) I. B.; (3) Mirajwadi 25.75 km (mile 16): (4) Tung 28.97 km (mile 18) and (5) Digras 37.01 km (mile 23).

It crosses the Krishna river over a commanding bridge near Sangli town.

The following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it:—

Place of junction	*Name of road*
Islampur	(1) Islampur-Bahe (M. D. R.).
	(2) Islampur-Walwa (M. D. R.).
	(3) Islampur-Takari (M. D. R.).

It is a fully-bridged cement-concrete road which is motorable throughout the year.

Sangli-Miraj Road.

This highway connects Sangli and Miraj towns. The total length of this road, which is in Miraj taluka only, is 9.25 km (5 miles and 6 furlongs). Its alignment is towards the south-east direction, and almost parallel to the Sangli-Miraj railway line for most of the distance.

CHAPTER 7. Communications. ROADS. Sangli-Miraj Road.

It touches Vishrambag in 4.83 km (mile 3) and Wanlesswadi in 6.44 km (mile 4). It does not cross any river neither does any road emanates from it. The road, however, crosses the Sangli-Miraj railway route at 1.61 km (mile 1) and the Poona-Miraj-Bangalore line of the Southern Railway at 8.05 km (mile 5).

The road has 3.66 metre (12′) cement concrete pavement and 1.83 metre (6′) asphalt shoulders on both sides, and is motorable throughout the year.

Sangli-Ankali Road.

This is an important approach road linking Sangli with Kolhapur. It starts from Sangli and runs a distance of 6.03 km (3 miles and 6 furlongs) up to Ankali where it joins the Ratnagiri-Kolhapur-Miraj-Bijapur state highway. This road is a part of Kolhapur-Sangli-Miraj-Pandharpur road and also joins the Sangli-Tasgaon Vita-Mayani road at Sangli. It is upgraded to the standard of a state highway. Its stretch is from north to south and it passes through the Miraj taluka only. The whole of this road is black topped.

It does not touch any village in its stretch, but crosses a *nala* in mile 1 where there is a causeway.

The road is motorable throughout the year except during heavy floods [in the above-mentioned *nala*.]

Ratnagiri-Kolhapur-Miraj-Bijapur Road.

This state highway starts from Ratnagiri and traverses the Kolhapur district before entering Sangli district. It serves as a vital link with the Konkan region and with important places in Kolhapur district. After entering Sangli district at 174.21 km (mile 108/2) the road turns to the right and runs south-east. It passes only through Miraj taluka and leaves for Bijapur district in 197.95 km (mile 123). Its total length in Sangli district is 23.74 km (14 miles and 6 furlongs). It is further connected to Hyderabad city.

It touches the following places in its stretch:—

(1) Ankali 177.03 km (mile 110); (2) Miraj 185.08 km (mile 115—Rest House): (3) Vaddi 189.90 km (mile 118); (4) Mhaisal 196.34 km (mile 122).

The road crosses the Krishna river over a high level bridge in 174.81 km (mile 108/5) near Ankali. There is a high level bridge (R.C.C. construction) over the Vaddi *nala* in 187.29 km (mile 116/3).

In its south-east stretch the following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it:—

Place of junction	*Name of road*
Ankali	Sangli-Ankali (M. D. R.)
Miraj	Miraj-Bedag-Arag (O. D. R.).

CHAPTER 7. Communications. ROADS. State Highways. Ratnagiri-Kolhapur-Miraj-Bijapur Road.

The surface of the road length between 175.42 km (mile 109) and 194.73 km (mile 121) is black topped whereas the remaining one is metalled. The road is motorable throughout the year except during abnormal floods to the Krishna river.

Pandharpur-Miraj Road.

This highway starts from Pandharpur in Sholapur district and enters Sangli district in 70.01 km (43/4 miles). After passing for a length of about 3.22 km (2 miles) through Sangli district, the road again enters Sholapur district in 73.22 km (mile 45/4). It finally leaves Sholapur district for Sangli district in 78.46 km (mile 48/6) near the village Nagoj. It covers a total length of about 49.49 km (30 miles and 6 furlongs) in Sangli district and traverses only the Miraj taluka.

It touches the following places in its stretch:—

(1) Ghorpadi 70.81 km (mile 44), (2) Kerewadi 80.47 km (mile 50), (3) Shelkewadi 83.69 km (mile 52), (4) Kuchi 90.12 km (mile 56), (5) Kavathe Mahankal (Rest House), (6) Landgewadi 93.34 km (mile 58), (7) Shirdhon 97.37 km (mile 60/4), (8) Borgaon 98.97 km (mile 61/4), (9) Bhose 109.44 km (mile 68), and (10) Kalambi 116.28 km (mile 72/2). This road crosses the Agrani river in 97.77 km (mile 60/6) near Shirdhon, where a bridge has been recently built.

The following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it:—

Place of junction	*Name of road*
Nagoj	Guhagar-Chiplun-Karad-Jath-Bijapur (S. H.).
Kuchi ..	Kuchi-Kavathe Mahankal (O. D. R.).
Landgewadi ..	Jath-Landgewadi (M. D. R.).

A length of 33.80 km (21 miles) in Sangli district is asphalted. The road is motorable throughout the year excepting interruptions to traffic during heavy rains. It is partially bridged.

This route serves as a vital trade link between the important towns in Sangli and Sholapur districts.

Guhagar-Chiplun-Karad-Jath-Bijapur Road.

This important highway starts from Guhagar, a port in Ratnagiri district, and enters Sangli district at 151.28 km (mile 94) after traversing Ratnagiri and Satara districts. Its alignment for the first portion of 48.28 km (30 miles) is from west to east after which it turns towards south-east. It covers a total distance of about 124.32 km (77 miles and 2 furlongs)=151.28 km to 226.11 km (mile 84 to 140/4) and 232.55 km to 282.04 km (mile 144/4 to 175/2)=in this district. The section from 226.11 km to 232.55 km (mile 140/4 to 144/4) passes through Sangola taluka of Sholapur district. After traversing the Tasgaon, Khanapur and Jath talukas, this highway leaves for Bijapur district in 282.04 km (mile 175/2) near Muchandi. It terminates at Bijapur in Mysore state.

It touches the following places in its stretch: (1) Kadegaon 157.72 km (mile 98), (2) Kadepur 160.93 km (mile 100), (3) Amrapur 164.15 km (mile 102), (4) Vita 180.0 km (mile 112 I.B.), (5) Sulewadi

CHAPTER 7. Communications. ROADS. State Highways. *Guhagar-Chiplun-Karad-Jath-Bijapur Road.*

183.47 km (mile 114), (6) Renavi 180.90 km (mile 118), (7) Khanapur 202.78 km (mile 126 R.H.), (8) Banapur 206.00 km (mile 128), (9) Hivare 210.22 km (mile 131), (10) Palashi 214.04 km (mile 133), (11) Ghat Nandre 222.09 km (mile 138), (12) Kumbhari 252.67 km (mile 157), (13) Jath 255.54 km (mile 165 I.B.) and (14) Muchandi 280.03 km (mile 174).

The road crosses the following rivers and big *nalas* where traffic is interrupted during heavy rains:—

(1) Kadegaon *nala* 157.31 km (mile 97/6):—A bridge has been recently constructed over this *nala*.

(2) Nandani river 164.56 km (mile 102/2):—There is a submersible bridge.

(3) Yerla river 169.58 km (mile 105/3).—There is a submersible causeway.

(4) Agrani river 205.79 km (mile 127/7).—There is no bridge at this crossing.

(5) Gulgunu *nala* 276.61 km (mile 171/7).— There is no bridge over the *nala*.

The following roads either take off from it or are crossed by this road:—

Place of junction	*Name of road*
Kadepur 161·34 km (mile 100/2).	Satara-Tasgaon (M.D.R.).
Vita 180·65 km (mile 112/2)	Sangli-Tasgaon-Vita-Mayani (S. H.). Vita-Pusesavali (M. D. R.). Vita-Kudal (M. D. R.).
Khanapur 201·77 km (mile 125/3).	Khanapur-Ped (M. D. R).
Nagoj *232·55 km (mile 144/4)	Miraj-Pandharpur (S. H.).
Jath 263 93 km (mile 164) ..	Jath-Jath Road Station (M. D. R.). Jath-Landgewadi (M.D.R.).

The portion of this road between 151.28 km and 185.08 km (miles 94 and 115) is asphalted, whereas the remaining length has a metalled surface. The road is motorable throughout the year except that traffic is sometimes interrupted in the monsoon at the river crossings mentioned above.

Sangli-Tasgaon Vita-Mayani-Pingli Road.

This highway emanates from Sangli, runs towards the north-east up to Kakadwadi and thence towards the north up to the district border. After traversing Miraj, Tasgaon and Khanapur talukas it enters Satara district.

This road route has opened for traffic the rich and fertile agricultural tracts in the district. It traverses through the entire length and breadth of the district. It also serves as a link between Madhavnagar Railway Station and Sangli.

* In Sholapur District

It touches the following places in its stretch:—

(1) Madhavnagar.	(2) Budhgaon.
(3) Kavalapur.	(4) Kakadwadi.
(5) Tasgaon.	(6) Shirgaon.
(7) Borgaon.	(8) Limb.
(9) Alte.	(10) Karve.
(11) Vita.	(12) Gardi.
(13) Nagewadi.	(14) Mahuli.

The road does not cross any big river but a number of *nalas* some of which are mentioned below:—

(1) Jirval *nala*.

(2) Shirgaon *nala*.

(3) Limb *nala*.

(4) Nagewadi *nala*.

(5) Mahuli *nala*.

Of these, submersible causeways have been constructed at the Shirgaon, Limb and Mahuli *nalas*. The road crosses a big *nala* in 11.06 km (mile 6/7) near Karalapur where a R.C.C. submersible bridge is newly constructed. Traffic over the highway is interrupted sometimes during heavy rains.

Going from south to north, the following roads either cross it or take off from it.

Place of junction	*Name of road*
Kakadwadi.	(1) Kakadwadi-Miraj (M. D. R.). (2) Kakadwadi-Kuchi (M. D. R.)
Tasgaon.	(1) Karad-Tasgaon (M. D. R.). (2) Tasgaon-Islampur (M.D.R.). (3) Tasgaon-Kundalpur-Kerewadi (M. D. R.). (4) Tasgaon-Khanapur (M. D. R.).
Shirgaon.	Shirgaon-Dhamani Khurd (O. D. R.).
Vita.	(1) Guhagar-Chiplun-Karad-Jath-Bijapur (S. H.). (2) Vita-Kherada-Pusesavali (M. D. R.). (3) Islampur-Kundal-Vita (M. D. R.).

The road crosses the Poona-Miraj railway route (metre gauge line) near Madhavnagar Railway Station.

The surface of the road up to the distance of 109.44 km (68 miles) from Sangli is asphalted. The rest of the road has a

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metalled surface. It is motorable throughout the year except in monsoon at some places where there are no bridges and causeways.

Major District Roads.

"Major District Roads" are defined as important roads in the district which connect market centres and towns with railways and highways. They serve as link roads with national highways and state highways. Formerly most of these roads were under the jurisdiction of the Public Works Department. Now most of them are maintained by the Zilla Parishad. They have generally a metalled surface and are motorable.

Jath-Shirgaon-Walekhindi-Jath-Rly. Stn. Road.

The road starts at Jath town. It runs in a north-westerly direction and ends at Jath Railway Station. The total length of the road is 23.85 km (14.82 miles) which is metalled. The road is motorable throughout the year. The road touches Shirgaon and Walekhindi in its stretch. The road neither crosses any bridge nor any approach road.

Miraj-Malgaon-Gundewadi-Khanderajuri-Koktoli-Karoli-Ghatnandre Road.

The road, starts at Miraj, runs in a north-easterly direction up to Karoli. At Karoli it takes a turn to the north and straightway goes to Ghatnandre where it terminates. The total length of the road is 61.16 km (38 miles) out of which 8.85 km (5½ miles) are metalled and remaining 52.30 km (32½ miles) are unmetalled. The road is motorable throughout the year.

The road neither crosses any bridge nor any approach road or any other major district road.

The road touches the following places in its stretch:—

(1) Malgaon. (2) Gandewadi.
(3) Khanderajuri. (4) Koktoli.
(5) Hingangaon. (6) Kavathe Mahankal.
(7) Kuchi. (8) Tisangi.
(9) Ghatnandre (where the road ends).

Miraj-Kakadwadi-Kumathe-Manerajuri-Gavan-Savlaj Road.

The road starts at 4.83 km (mile No. 3) of Kolhapur-Pandharpur Road, a major district road, and ends at Savlaj Village. The road runs in a north-westerly direction up to Kakadwadi, then takes a turn to north-east and ends in the same direction. The total length of the road is 28.97 km (18 miles) out of which only a length of 2.41 km (1.50 miles) is metalled.

The road is motorable from Miraj to Kakadwadi only. The traffic is held up when the river Agrani overflows the bridge.

In its stretch the road touches the following places:—

(1) Kakadwadi. (2) Kumathe.
(3) Uplavi. (4) Manerajuri.
(5) Gavan. (6) Atani.
(7) Savlaj (where the road terminates).

The road connects the Tasgaon-Savlaj road to Kerewadi. It crosses the river Agrani at Gavan village.

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Link Road.

(Joining Guhagar-Chiplun-Karad-Jath-Bijapur Road and Karad-Tasgaon Road).

This road starts from Guhagar-Chiplun-Karad-Jath-Bijapur Road near Ogalewadi and ends at 6.84 km (mile No. 4/2) of Karad-Tasgaon road. The total length of the road is 9.25 km (5.75 miles) and is metalled. The road is motorable throughout the year.

This road joins Guhagar-Chiplun-Karad-Jath-Bijapur road and Karad-Tasgaon road. It crosses no bridge or road or approaches any other road.

Wadgaon-Ashta-Tasgaon Arvade-Atpadi-Dighanchi Road.

This road is one of the longest roads in the district. It starts at Shigaon village and goes straight in a northerly direction up to Ashta. Near the village Ashta, it turns to the east and runs in a north-easterly direction. Again at Atpadi the road takes a northerly turn, runs to the north and ends at Dighanchi. The total length of this road is 104.40 km (64.87 miles) out of which 70.91 km. (44.06 miles) is metalled and 33.49 km. (20.81 miles) is unmetalled. The road is motorable throughout the year.

This road crosses the Krishna river near Bhilavadi village, the Yerala river near Nimni village and the Agrani river near Karanje village.

In its course the road touches the following places:—

(1) Shigaon (from where it starts).	(2) Bagni,
(3) Ashta.	(4) Ankalkhop.
(5) Bhilwadi.	(6) Nimni.
(7) Tasgaon.	(8) Chinchud.
(9) Loda.	(10) Kovge.
(11) Vaghapur.	(12) Khugaon.
(13) Bastavade.	(14) Vaiphale.
(15) Karanje.	(16) Nelkaranji.
(17) Bomewadi.	(18) Kargani..
(19) Tadavle.	(20) Atpadi.
(21) Vithalpur.	(22) Dighanchi.

The road crosses Peth-Sangli road and Guhagar-Chiplun-Karad-Jath-Bijapur road.

Ankali-Sangli-Bambavade-Hingangaon-Pusesavali Road,

The road starts from Sangli City and turns towards north-west. It then runs straight till it crosses the district border to enter Satara district 3.22 km (2 miles) away from Hingangaon. The total length of the road is 64.37 km (40 miles) which is all metalled.

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Ankali-Sangli-Bambavade-Hingangaon-Pusesavali Road.

The road touches the following places in its stretch:—

(1) Madhavnagar. (2) Karnal.
(3) Nandre. (4) Asagde.
(5) Bambavade. (6) Belavadi.
(7) Rampur. (8) Vangi.
(9) Hingangaon. (10) Kadepur.
(11) Belevada.

A part of this road is motorable and a part of it is not motorable, *i.e.*, from Sangli to Nandre it is motorable, from Nandre to Vasavade motorable, from Vasavade to Tasgaon motorable, from Bambavade to Belavadi not motorable and from Belavadi to Sangli district border it is again motorable.

This road crosses the Yerala river near Vasavade village in 11.27 km (mile 7).

The road crosses Wadgaon-Shigaon-Ashta road and Uran-Islampur-Takari-Belavadi-Vita Road.

Karad-Nimni-Tasgaon Road.

The road starts at 6.84 km (mile 4/2) and after running 45.46 km (28/2 miles) terminates at the boundary line of Sangli district. The total length of the road is 45.46 km. (28/2 miles) and is metalled from one end to the other.

The road touches the following places in its course:—

(1) Nimni.
(2) Kundal.
(3) Tupari.

The road crosses the Tasgaon-Ashta road.

Kirloskarwadi-Kundal Road.

This road starts from Kirloskarwadi and ends at Kundal village. The total length of the road is 2.70 km (1.68 miles) the whole of which is unmetalled. The road is motorable throughout the year.

Vita-Kherade-Pusesavali Road.

This road starts from Vita. It runs north-west and terminates at the border of Sangli district. The total length of the road is 22.53 km (14 miles). Of this 6.44 km (4 miles) is metalled and the rest unmetalled.

The road touches the following places in its stretch:—

(1) Bhilawadi.
(2) Kherade (Vangi).

The road is motorable throughout the year from Vita to Kherade (Vangi) except the part from Kherade (Vangi) to Sangli district border which is unmotorable. The road crosses a river at 11.27 km (mile 7).

Tasgaon-Khanapur Road.

The road starts from Tasgaon, takes a direction to north-west, turns to the north-east near the village Dhavle and then straight way goes to Khanapur and terminates there only. The total length of the road is 30.25 km (18.80 miles) of which 3.22 km (2 miles) is metalled and the rest is unmetalled.

Tasgaon-Khanapur Road.

The road touches the following places in its stretch:—

(1) Shirgaon. (2) Visapur.
(3) Hatnur. (4) Ped
(5) Khanapur (where it ends).

This road approaches Guhagar-Chiplun-Karad-Jath Bijapur road.

The road is motorable all through the year.

Shigaon-Visapur Road.

The road starts from Shigaon and terminates at Visapur. The total length of the road is 1.82 km (1.13 miles) and is unmetalled. It approaches Khanapur-Tasgaon Road.

Tasgaon-Savlaj Kerewadi Road.

The road starts from Tasgaon, takes the north-east direction up to Khugaon; there it turns to east and runs up to Kerewadi where it terminates. The total length of the road is 38.91 km (24.18 miles) which is wholly unmetalled.

In its stretch the road touches the following places:—

(1) Chinchud. (2) Koulage.
(3) Loda. (4) Vaghapur.
(5) Khugaon. (6) Savlaj.
(7) Dongarson. (8) Kerewadi (where it terminates).

The road is partly motorable and partly unmotorable. It is motorable from Tasgaon to Savlaj and unmotorable from Savlaj to Kerewadi. The road crosses the Agrani river in 20.92 km (mile 13/0).

Khujgaon-Waiphale Road.

This road starts from Khujgaon and joins Wadgaon-Ashta-Tasgaon-Arvade-Atpadi-Dighanchi Road. The total length of the road is 3.22 km (2 miles) and is unmetalled. The road crosses the Tasgaon-Kerewadi road.

Nelkaranji-Kharsundi-Zare Road.

This road starts from Nelkaranji and runs in a northerly direction. It ends at the village Zare. The total length of this road is 23.33 km (14.50 miles) and is unmetalled.

The road touches the following places in its stretch:—

(1) Kharsundi. (2) Ghanand.
(3) Chinchole. (4) Zare.

This road does not cross or approach any other road.

The road is motorable throughout the year.

Landgewadi-Jath-Umadi-Chadchan Road.

This road starts from Landagewadi. It runs in a south-easterly direction up to Dafalapur where it turns towards north-east. The road crosses the Sangli border line leading to Chadchan. The total length of the road is 95.95 km (59.62 miles). Of this 44.45 km (27.62 miles) are metalled and 51.50 km (32 miles) are unmetalled. A part of this road up to Jath could be used for traffic all the time. But from Jath it is not motorable.

CHAPTER 7. Communications. ROADS. *Major District Roads.* *Landgewadi-Jath-Umadi-Chadchan Road.*

Following are the places which the road touches in its stretch:—

(1) Landagewadi.	(2) Kokle.
(3) Dafalapur.	(4) Jath.
(5) Walsang.	(6) Rolgiri.
(7) Aspet.	(8) Madgyal.

(9) Utagi.

The road ends at Sangli. It crosses Guhagar-Chiplun-Karad-Jath-Bijapur road.

Dafalapur-Anantpur Road.

The road starts from Dafalapur at 17.70 km (mile No. 11), and goes in a southerly direction and crosses the district border at Anantpur. The total length of this road is 6.44 km (4 miles) and is unmetalled. The road is not motorable.

The road does not cross or approach any other road nor does it cross any river.

Shigaon-Pandharpur Road.

The road starts from Shigaon village and ends at Shinganhalli in the district. After crossing the district border it leads to Pandharpur. The total length of the road is 10.96 km (6.81 miles). The road is unmetalled and is not used for traffic all the time.

The road neither crosses nor connects any other road.

Jath-Waiphale Road.

The road starts at Jath town. After running a distance of 15.08 km (9.37 miles) it terminates at Waiphale. The road runs first to the north and then turns to the north-east. The road is unmetalled. It neither crosses any river nor any other road in its stretch.

The road touches the following villages in its stretch (1) Achakanhalli (2) Bannali, (3) Waiphale (where it ends).

Bhose-Soni-Dhulgaon Road.

The road starts from Bhose and ends at Dhulgaon. The total length of the road is 4.43 km (2.73 miles) and is unmetalled. A part of the road from Bhose to Soni is motorable; from Soni to Dhulgaon it is not motorable.

The road does not approach or cross any other road.

Peth-Shirala Sagaon-Bambavade Road.

The road starts from Peth and runs in a south-westerly direction up to Sagaon and little further where it ends at the border of Sangli district. It runs a distance of 26.55 km (16.50 miles) of which 4.83 km (3 miles) is metalled and the rest unmetalled.

In its stretch the road touches the following villages:—

(1) Dharan.	(2) Balawadi
(3) Red.	(4) Shirala.
(5) Bhat-Shirgaon.	(6) Natoli.

(7) Sagaon.

The road crosses the Warna river in 25.75 km. (mile 16/0) and the Morna river in 16.09 km (mile 10.0).

The road crosses Shirala-Rile-Chincholi-Petlond road. The road is motorable throughout the year.

Shirala-Rile-Chincholi-Petlond Road.

This road emanates from Shirala village at 41.04 km. (mile 25/4). It runs to the west up to the village Rile where it turns to the north and goes straight in a north-westerly direction till Petlond. Again it turns to the west and goes straight to Shisheshwar village and terminates there at 54.72 km (mile 34). The total length of this road is 53.91 km (33.50 miles) out of which a length of 17.70 km (11 miles) is metalled and the rest unmetalled. The road is motorable throughout the year.

The road touches the following places in its run:—

(1) Shirala (where it starts).	(7) Natavda.
(2) Brur.	(8) Chapti.
(3) Rile.	(9) Karanguli.
(4) Mangrul.	(10) Arla.
(5) Bilashi.	(11) Mandur.
(6) Chincholi.	(12) Petlond.
(13) Siddheshwar.	

It crosses the Malkapur-Kokrud-Yelapur-Karad road. The road is not motorable.

Malkapur-Kokrud-Yelapur-Karad Road.

The road starts from the village Nathode and runs in a northerly direction. It terminates at the village Mogi Khurd 3.22 km (2 miles) away from Yelapur. The total length of the road is four miles and is unmetalled.

This road crosses the Shirala-Petlond road. The road is not passable for traffic when there is heavy rainfall.

Sangli-Bagani-Tandulwadi-Natholi Road.

The road starts from Sangli, runs westwards and terminates at Natholi village. The total length of this road is 53.91 km (33.50 miles) and is unmetalled throughout.

In its course the road touches the following villages :

(1) Samdoli.	(7) Tandulwadi.
(2) Kavathe Piran.	(8) Kundal.
(3) Dudhgaon.	(9) Aitwade Khurd.
(4) Bagani.	(10) Devarde Chikurde.
(5) Nagaon.	(11) Mangle.
(6) Bhadkhumbe.	(12) Kande.
(13) Natoli.	

The road crosses the Morna river near Mangle village. The traffic is held up when there is heavy rainfall.

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The road crosses Wadgaon-Shigaon road near Bagani and Poona-Bangalore road near Tandulwadi and Islampur-Chikurde-Devarde road.

Major District Roads. *Uran-Islampur-Ankalkhop Road.*

This road starts from Islampur and runs in east-westerly direction and terminates at the village Nagathane after running a distance of 17.70 km (11 miles). The road is unmetalled throughout and is not motorable when there is heavy rainfall.

Islampur-Balavadi-Vita-Jadavale Road.

The road starts from Islampur town and goes in a north-easterly direction. It terminates at the village Yede Machhindra. The road covers a distance of 16.90 km (10-50 miles), the whole of which is unmetalled.

The road touches the following places in its stretch:—

(1) Bame. (2) Shorta.
(3) Yede Machhindra (where it terminates).

The road is motorable throughout the year.

Uran-Islampur-Balavadi-Vita-Tadavale Road.

This road starts from Vita town and moves in a north-easterly direction, turns to east from Lengre village up to Tadavale where it ends. The total length of the road in the district is 43.92 km (27.29 miles) which is unmetalled throughout.

Following are the places touched by this road:—

(1) Lengre. (2) Bhood.
(3) Kharsundi. (4) Banpuri.
(5) Tadavale.

There are no roads approached or crossed by this road. The road is motorable from Vita to Bhood but from Bhood to Kharsundi and Kharsundi to Tadavale it is not motorable.

Other District Roads.

The Other District Roads are also of the same category as Major District Roads, except that they are more frequently interrupted for traffic during heavy rains. They have usually *murum* surface and are mostly unmetalled.

The following table shows the position of Other District Roads in Sangli district:—

TABLE No. 3

OTHER DISTRICT ROADS

Name of the Road	Starting point	Ending point	Length metalled Km.	Length metalled Miles	Length unmetalled Km.	Length unmetalled Miles	Whether motorable throughout the year	The road it crosses or approaches	River it crosses
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)		(5)		(6)	(7)	(8)
Miraj-Takali-Mallewadi-Yerandoli-Shipur-Belunki Road.	Miraj	Belunki	..		24·64	(15·31)	No	..	..
Shirdhon-Gavan Road	Shirdhon	Gavan	..		5·63	(3·50)	No	..	..
Manerajuri-Kahlge Road	Manerajuri	Kahlge	..		9·66	(6·00)	Unmotorable	Miraj-Savlaj and Tasgaon-Kerewadi Road.	..
Vita-Vejegaon Road	Vita	Vejegaon	..		12·87	(8·00)	No	..	..
Anakohal-Atpadi-Nimbavade Road.	Atpadi	Sangli Dist. border.			12·87	(8·00)	Yes	..	..
Dafalapur-Birnal Road	Dafalapur	Birnal	..		14·48	(9·00)	Unmotorable	It approaches Guhagar-Chiplun-Karad-Jath-Bijapur Road.	..
Jath-Basargi-Aligat Road	Jath	Sangli Dist. border.			17·70	(11·00)	No	..	..
Basargi-Gugwad-Balegiri Road.	Basargi	Do.	..		5·12	(3·18)	Unmotorable	..	..
Dafalapur-Bilur Road	Dafalapur	Bilur	..		14·48	(9·00)	Do.	..	..
Yelavi-Jath-Umrani Road	Yelavi	Umrani	..		36·21	(22·50)	No	It crosses Guhagar-Chiplun-Karad-Jath-Bijapur.	..
Sonyal-Lonar Road	Sonyal	Sangli Dist. border.			1·61	(1·00)	Unmotorable	..	..

TABLE No. 3—*cont.*

Name of the Road (1)	Starting point (2)	Ending point (3)	Length metalled (4) Km.	Length metalled (4) Miles	Length unmetalled (5) Km.	Length unmetalled (5) Miles	Whether motorable throughout the year (6)	The road it crosses or approaches (7)	River it crosses (8)
Miraj-KrishnaGhad-Arjun-wadi Road.	Miraj ..	Sangli-Dist. border.	3·91	(2·43)	..		Yes	..	..
Kande to Savarde ..	Kande ..	Savarde ..			3·22	(2·00)	Unmotorable	..	..
Sangli-Tasgaon-Vita-Nandre Road.	Nandre ..	Tasgaon ..	8·24	(5·12)	..		Yes	..	Yerla river.
Budhgaon-Bisur-Nandre Road.	Budhgaon ..	..			6·84	(4·25)	Unmotorable	..	..
Rethare-Shenoli Road ..	12·87 Km. (mile 8/0).	Rethare village.	5·81	(3·61)	1·43	(0·89)	Yes	..	..
Sagaon-Mangrul Road ..	Near Sagaon village.	Near Mangrul			11·27	(7·00)	Unmotorable	It crosses Shirala-Petlond Road and Peth-Shirala-Sagaon-Bambawade Road.	..
Ashta-Bawachi-Yedenipani-Shirala-Wakrude-Yelapur Road.	Ashta ..	Yelapur ..			47·47	(29·50)	No	It crosses Islampur-Chikurde Road and also crosses Peth-Shirala-Sagaon-Bambavade Road and approaches Malkapur-Kakruda-Nathavade - Yelapur-Yelegaon-Karad Road.	..
Kasegaon-Wakrude Road..	Kasegaon-Wategaon.	Wategaon-Wakrude.	4·83	(3·00)	13·16	(8·18)	Yes No	It approaches Ashta-Bawachi - Yedeni-	..

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								pani-Sitvade Shirala-Wakrude Yelapur Road.	
Uran-Islampur-Ladegaon-	Islampur	13·68 (M. 8/4).	13·68 (miles 8·50)				Yes	It approaches P. B. Road Ashta-Shirala.	..
Kodoli Road (up to Sangli District).	13·68 Km. (mile 8/4)	Chikurde ..			6·63	(4·12)	Yes	Road Sangli Road Sangli-Kavthe-Piran-Dudhgaon-Bagani-Tandulwadi-Chikurde Road.	Warna River 20·52 Km. (Mile 12/6).
Uran-Islampur-Kameri Road.	Urun	.. Kameri ..			69·20	(43·00)	Unmetalled	It approaches P. B. Road.	..
Borgaon-Takari	.. Takari	.. Decrashtre ..	11·27	(7·00)	..		Yes	It approaches K. T. Road and G. C. K.	..
Deorashtre-Kadegaon	.. Tadasar	.. Kadegaon ..			..		..	J. B. Road and approaches Masur.	
Shamgaon Road	.. Borgaon	.. Shamgaon ..			37·30	(23·18)	No	Mayani-Vibhutwadi Dighanchi-Pandharpur Road.	Krishna River.
Balavadi-Deorashtre Road	Balavadi	.. Deorashtre ..			6·44	(4·00)	No	..	..
Kadegaon-Nerli Kothawade Road.	Kadegaon	.. Kothawade ..			6·44	(4·00)	No	..	..
Khanderajuri-Gavliwadi-Road.	Khanderajuri	Gavliwadi ..			3·54	(2·20)	No	..	..
Ashta-Dudhagaon-Kothawade Road.	Kadegaon	.. Sangli District border.			11·55	(7·18)	No	..	..
Miraj-Bedag-Arag-Lingnur.	Miraj	.. Bedag ..	15·64	(9·72)	..		Yes	..	..
Belunki-Salgare-Karoli-Road.	Bedag	.. Karoli ..			25·68	(15·96)	No	..	..

CHAPTER 7. Communications. ROADS. Municipal Roads.

The following table gives the statistics of municipal roads in the district:—

TABLE No. 4

STATISTICS OF MUNICIPAL ROADS

Name of the Municipality	Metalled length Km.	Metalled length M. F.	Unmetalled length Km.	Unmetalled length M. F.	Total Km.	Total M. F.
(2)	(3)		(4)		(5)	
Sangli	47·07	(29 2)	46·17	(28 5½)	93·24	(57 7½)
Miraj	11·27	(7 0)	25·75	(16 0)	37·01	(23 0)
Tasgaon	6·44	(4 0)	37·01	(23 0)	43·45	(27 0)
Ashta	1·61	(1 0)	9·66	(6 0)	11·27	(7 0)
Islampur	12·87	(8 0)	8 05	(5 0)	20·92	(13 0)
Vita	4 22	(2 5)	..	..	4·22	(2 5)
Total ..	83·48	(51 7)	126 64	(78 5½)	210·12	(130 4½)

VEHICLES IN TOWNS.

Vehicles in towns are divided into four categories according to the motive power used for their locomotion. They are motors, cycles, tongas and bullock carts. The following table shows the number of such vehicles in the various municipal towns:—

TABLE No. 5.

VEHICLES IN MUNICIPAL TOWNS IN SANGLI DISTRICT

Name of the Municipality	Number of motors	Cycles	Tongas	Bullock-carts
Sangli	242	4,779	51	675
Miraj	126	2,401	92	823
Tasgaon	13	570	5	285
Ashta	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Islampur	55	N.A.	4	322
Vita	21	N.A.	1	274

BRIDGES.

The following table shows the bridges and causeways in Sangli district:—

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Communications.

BRIDGES.

TABLE No. 6

BRIDGES AND CAUSEWAYS (WITH LINEAR WATERWAY OF 100′ AND ABOVE) IN SANGLI DISTRICT

Name of road	Name of river or *nala*	Mile No.	Name of nearest village or town	Type of construction	Average height	Length	Width of clear road way	Cost of construction	Year of construction
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
		Km. Mile			Metre Ft.	Metre Ft.	Metre Ft.	Rs.	
Shirala-Bilashi Charan Road.	Morna River	2·41 (1/4)	Biur	R. C. C. Bridge.	13·43 (44·07) up to pier cap	60·96 (200′)	6·71 (22′)	2,33,525	1958
Satara-Tasgaon Road.	Mahadeo *nala*	61·56 (38/2)	Kadepur	Do.	4·56 (14·95) up to pier cap	45·72 (150′)	6·71 (22′)	1,94,720	1963
Karad-Tasgaon Road.	Kundal *nala*	32·79 (20/3)	Kundal	Do.	6·86 (22·50)	30·48 (100′)	6·71 (22′)	73,620	1963
Sangli-Karnal Nandre-Tasgaon Road.	Karnal *nala*	7·44 (4/5)	Karnal	Do.	4·42 (14·50)	26·59 (87·25)	6·71 (22′)	89,432	1963
Tasgaon-Ashta Road.	Yerla river	7·24 (4/4) 9·25 (5/6)	Nimni	Do.	5·79 (19)	134·42 (441′)	6·71 (22′)	3,10,000	1955

CHAPTER 7.

Communications.

There are very few rivers in Sangli district and most of them are bridged. Ferries, therefore, have lost their importance as a means of communication. The only big river is the Krishna, on which four ferries ply. The following statement gives the names of the places and the rivers in the district where the ferry exists.

FERRIES.

FERRIES IN SANGLI DISTRICT

Name of the place where ferry exists	Name of River
(1)	(2)
Takari	Krishna.
Miraj	Krishna
Dhavali	Krishna.
Rethare Harnaksh	Krishna
Aitwade	Warna.
Sagaon	Warna.

PUBLIC TRANSPORT. State Transport

Nationalisation of passenger transport services in Sangli district dates back to March 1949. In 1947, the State Government decided to nationalise the passenger transport, and as an initial step, the services were started departmentally in June 1948. Administration of the same was subsequently handed over to a statutory public corporation in December 1949, under the provisions of the Bombay State Road Transport Corporation Act, 1948.

Before the nationalisation, there were number of private bus owners who were permitted to ply the buses on some particular routes. But their operations and services were far from satisfactory.

The Government, therefore, considered the idea of nationalisation of public transport. Moreover, as it was an indispensable public utility, the Government thought it as its duty to nationalise it and serve the people in the best possible manner. Hence, the then Government of Bombay decided in favour of nationalisation of road transport.

For administrative convenience, Sangli district has been included in the Kolhapur division of the State Transport Corporation. Under the nationalised set-up, the state of affairs has considerably improved. Buses are now well-maintained and looked after in the various workshops in the district. A number of new routes have been introduced. In introducing these new routes the Corporation takes into consideration various factors such as alternative transport services on that route, its economic importance, availability of goods traffic, etc. Almost on every motorable road the State Transport buses ply. In Sangli district, the network of the bus routes is remarkable. All the important towns, taluka places,

market places, villages of some historical or religious importance or those popular for any fair or bazar are linked either with one another or with any important town in the district. Various amenities are provided to passengers at a number of bus depots and bus stands in the district.

State Transport.

The State Transport operations in the district are maintained through five depots situated at Tasgaon, Sangli, Islampur, Vita and Jath. These five depots together run buses on 113 routes which make 595 single trips per day. In addition, the depot at Sangli runs a Sangli-Miraj city bus service. Special buses also run on bazar days from important towns like Sangli, Miraj and Islampur. Special parcel booking and delivery services have also been arranged by the Corporation at 18 important places in the district.

Depots and Garages.

The workshop side of the division is looked after by the Divisional Mechanical Engineer with the assistance of a Divisional Works Superintendent and an Assistant Works Superintendent. Besides, there are as many depot managers as there are depots who are fully responsible for the working of the depots. The Corporation maintains depots and garages to which are attached workshops for the proper maintenance of vehicles. The major repair works are done in the divisional workshop. Under strict regulation, after the operation of every 19,311.60 km. (12,000 miles), vehicles are sent to the divisional workshop for thorough inspection. Proper care is taken in passing out the vehicles for further plying. There are depots with attached workshops at Sangli, Vita, Tasgaon, Islampur and Jath in the district. The Sangli depot, working since 1951, is one of the oldest depots in the division. The following statement shows the unit wise traffic statistics in Sangli district during 1963-64.

CHAPTER 7.

Communications.

PUBLIC TRANSPORT, State Transport.

Unit	Level of Unit	Total No. of persons employed	Nature of premises	No. of routes emanating	Total route mileage	Average number of passengers travelled per day
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
					Km. (M. F.)	
Islampur	Depot	94	Permanent	10	274·19 (170 3)	6,185
Jath	Do.	47	Do.	12	558·64 (347 1)	1,694
Sangli, Sangli City	Do.	168	Do.	26	1,102·60 (685 1)	11,524
Tasgaon	Do.	57	Temporary	12	513·38 (319 0)	2,635
Vita	Do.	92	Permanent	16	646·15 (401 04)	4,905

Amenities.

Proper attention is paid by the State Transport Corporation to the provision of amenities to the travelling public. Various schemes providing passenger amenities are being implemented.

A permanent, solid structure with all the necessary requisites of a composite and good bus terminus station has been completed at Sangli, the district headquarters. Bus stands with amenities such as refreshment room, books and newspaper stall, pan-bidi shop, etc., are also provided at Islampur, Tasgaon, Jath, Kasegaon, Khanapur, Kadepur, Mahuli, Vita, etc. First-aid is provided at all the depots and stations.

Fare.

The schedule of passenger fare is based on stages, 20 paise being the fare for a stage of 6.44 km. (four miles) and 10 paise for a sub-stage of 3.22 km. (two miles). The minimum average fare is 20 paise[1]. The schedule of fares is uniform throughout the State.

Labour Welfare.

The State Transport Corporation looks after the welfare of the employees and is very particular about the labour-management relation. It provides housing accommodation to the staff. Sports are encouraged and funds for this purpose are allotted to all units of the division, tournaments are arranged and prizes are distributed to the winners. The workers are encouraged to take part in these tournaments which are held on zonal and inter-zonal basis.

A dispensary is run at the headquarters of the division to provide medical facilities to the workers and their families.

A quarterly bulletin in the regional language is published and issued free to the employees of the State Transport Corporation. It covers many such topics as workers activities, corporation's working, etc. Reading rooms are provided at each depot where newspapers are made available for the benefit of the employees. Practically all the employees are the members of the State Transport Co-operative Bank Ltd.. Bombay.

A State Transport Employees Union, is functioning in the Division.

Bus routes.

The statistics about the State Transport bus routes are given in the following statement:—

Route	Route length		No. of return trips per day	Average number of persons travelled per day
	Km.			
(1) Sangli-Poona	237·18	(147-3)	2	443
(2) Sangli-Pandharpur	145·85	(90-5)	1	269
(3) Sangli-Karad	97·57	(60-5)	2	497
(4) Sangli-Kolhapur	48·48	(30-1)	11	1,359
(5) Sangli-Kolhapur (*via* Nandani)	53·91	(33-4)	1	136

[1] It has been changed subsequently.

The Directory of Village and Towns given at the end of the Volume gives the nearest bus-stand and the nearest railway station to each village and town in the district.

CHAPTER 7.

Communications.

PUBLIC TRANSPORT.

State Transport.

Bus routes.

Route	Route length		No. of return trips per day	Average number of persons travelled per day
	Km.			
(6) Sangli-Jaysingpur	10·46	(6-4)	14	879
(7) Sangli-Islampur	41·04	(25-4)	1	73
(8) Sangli-Gavan	36·01	(22-3)	1	78
(9) Sangli-Ankalkhop	34·00	(21-6)	2	100
(10) Sangli-Manerajuri	26·55	(16-4)	2	165
(11) Sangli-Dattawad	40·43	(25-1)	2	102
(12) Sangli-Tandulwadi	40·43	(25-1)	1	84
(13) Sangli-Digras	9·66	(6-0)	1	39
(14) Sangli-Nandre	12·47	(7-6)	4	188
(15) Sangli-Madhavnagar	5·63	(3-4)	9	256
(16) Sangli-Dudhgaon . ..	29·17	(18-1)	5	390
(17) Sangli-Vita	54·52	(33-7)	2	338
(18) Sangli-Jath	95·76	(59-4)	1	107
(19) Sangli-Miraj . .	12·87	(8-0)	4	45
(20) Sangli-Miraj Market . ..	10 66	(6-5)	94	9,709
(21) Sangli-Miraj Hospital . ..	13 28	(8-2)	19	1,603
(22) Islampur-Sangli	41·04	(25-4)	8	504
(23) Islampur-Kolhapur	47·68	(29-5)	5	252
(24) Islampur-Borgaon	10·66	(6-5)	1	35
(25) Islampur-Shirala	17·50	(10-7)	4	167
(26) Islampur-Kokrud	36·61	(22-6)	5	359
(27) Islampur-Takari	14·28	(8-7)	8	272
(28) Islampur-Wategaon	16·90	(10-4)	2	35
(29) Islampur-Sirshi	30·98	(19-2)	1	102
(30) Islampur-Karad	29·77	(18-4)	3	118
(31) Islampur-Yellur	14·69	(9-1)	2	47
(32) Islampur-Mangle	26·96	(16-6)	3	127
(33) Islampur-Chikurde	19·51	(12-1)	3	88

Route	Route length		No. of return trips per day	Average number of persons travelled per day
	Km.			
(34) Islampur-Bahe	9·45	(5-7)	3	89
(35) Islampur-Ashta	19·71	(12-2)	1	36
(36) Islāmpur-Walva	12 87	(8-0)	3	60
(37) Tasgaon-Sangli	25·55	(15-7)	10	1,035
(38) Tasgaon-Bhilawadi Railway Station	11·06	(6-7)	4	113
(39) Tasgaon-Bhilawadi	17·50	(10-7)	3	125
(40) Tasgaon-Dighanchi	85·09	(52-7)	1	121
(41) Tasgaon-Poona	237·18	(147-3)	1	355
(42) Tasgaon-Bhavaninagar	38·83	(24-1)	1	103
(43) Tasgaon-Kirloskarwadi	28·57	(17-6)	3	103
(44) Tasgaon-Gavan	27·16	(16-7)	1	78
(45) Tasgaon-Khanapur	35·41	(22-0)	4	199
(46) Tasgaon-Manjarde ..	21·73	(13-4)	1	54
(47) Tasgaon-Waifale	28·16	(17-4)	1	65
(48) Tasgaon-Karad	68·20	(42-3)	1	164
(49) Tasgaon-Dongarsoni	27·36	(17-0)	1	95
(50) Tasgaon-Vadgaon (Savlaj) ..	28·36	(17-5)	2	101
(51) Vita-Sangli	54·52	(33-7)	5	554
(52) Vita-Karad	42·04	(26-1)	8	775
(53) Vita-Dighanchi (via Khanapur) ..	74·23	(46-1)	1	134
(54) Vita-Dighanchi (via Mayani) ..	66·79	(41-4)	1	127
(55) Vita-Atpadi	58·54	(36-3)	4	506
(56) Vita-Chinghani	35·00	(21-6)	1	93
(57) Vita-Kokkudwad	38·02	(23-5)	1	150
(58) Vita-Phaltan	101·19	(62-7)	1	200
(59) Vita-Lengre	17·30	(10-6)	1	53
(60) Vita-Budha	22·33	(13-7)	1	78
(61) Vita-Dhalgaon	57·73	(35-7)	2	263

CHAPTER 7. — Communications. PUBLIC TRANSPORT. State Transport. *Bus routes.*

Route	Route length		No. of return trips per day	Average number of persons travelled per day
	Km.			
(62) Vita-Balwadi	16·09	(10-0)	4	182
(63) Vita-Mayani	20·32	(12-5)	4	185
(64) Vita-Yerla River	10·46	(6-4)	2	80
(65) Vita-Atpadi (via Nimbawade)	76·64	(47-5)	1	126
(66) Vita-Shalgaon	35·20	(21-7)	1	63
(67) Jath-Miraj	82 88	(51-4)	5	729
(68) Jath-Jath Road	28·57	(17-6)	1	78
(69) Jath-Jath Railway Station	24·14	(15-0)	2	155
(70) Jath-Tikondi	56·13	(34-7)	1	92
(71) Jath-Sankh	46 47	(28-7)	1	92
(72) Jath-Umarani	20·92	(13-0)	1	75
(73) Jath-Yelavi	22·33	(13-7)	1	72
(74) Jath-Umadi	49·89	(31-0)	1	55
(75) Jath-Bilur	13·28	(8-2)	2	100
(76) Jath-Chadchan	62 97	(39-1)	2	245
(77) Jath-Dhulgaon	28·97	(18-0)	3	220
(78) Jath-Anantpur	27·36	(17-0)	2	79
(79) Jath-Jadarbablad	39·83	(24-6)	1	86
(80) Jath-Kavathe	44·86	(27-7)	1	53
(81) Miraj-Arag Station	24 14	(15-0)	2	..
(82) Miraj-Bedag	12·87	(8-0)	2	..
(83) Miraj-Gundewadi	14·28	(8-7)	4	..
(84) Jath-Malgaon	10·06	(6-2)	3	..
(85) Miraj-Narwad	15·29	(9-4)	2	..
(86) Kirloskarwadi-Kundal	4·83	(3-0)	1	..
(87) Kirloskarwadi-Kadepur	32·19	(20-0)	1	..

RURAL TRANSPORT.

Transport facilities in the rural areas in the past were meagre due to the lack of good roads. Except a few motorable roads and highways, most of the roads were earthen tracks which were sometimes unusable even for cart traffic in the rainy season. The bullock-cart was then by far the only means of goods as well as of passenger traffic.

However, during the last 25 years, considerable progress has been achieved in this regard and several schemes of road development and repairs are now in progress. A number of roads have been constructed and repaired. The Poona-Bangalore railway route, and a number of highways and district roads touch a number of villages in the district.

RURAL TRANSPORT.

The bullock-cart remains the most important means of conveyance to the rural populace. It is used for local transport of goods as well as for marketing purpose. However, motor trucks and railways have supplemented it for commercial traffic to distant places. Transport of sugarcane, *gul*, groundnut, cotton, food-grains and other items of wholesale trade are mainly transported by trucks.

During the last 15 years considerable improvement has taken place in the field of passenger transport. The State Transport plies buses on almost all the motorable roads in the district. Towns and villages on most of the highways and other motorable roads are served by bus transport. Moreover, approach roads from railway stations have lately been developed.

GOODS. TRANSPORT.

The commodities transported through trucks in Sangli district are tobacco, sugar, onion, chillis, turmeric, etc.

The maximum freight charges fixed by the Regional Transport Authority are 50 paise for ton-mile and Re. 1 per lorry-mile plus additional surcharge of 25 per cent on the basic freight rates. The actual freight charged by the motor owners varies from 30 paise to 50 paise per ton per mile.

The number of motor-vehicles in operation in Sangli and Kolhapur districts is given below as separate statistics of vehicles for Sangli district is not available.

VEHICLES IN OPERATION IN KOLHAPUR REGION *

Items (1)	No. of motor vehicles in operation 1962-63 (2)
Motor cycles	1,184
Motor cars	1,698
Taxi-cabs	73
Auto-Rikshaws	20
Stage Carriages	260
Lorries	1,831
Ambulance	7
School buses	3
Private Service Vehicles	7
Trailers	142
Tractors	182

TRAVEL AND TOURIST FACILITIES.

Sangli district does not attract as many tourists as Satara or Aurangabad, which boast of such places as Mahabaleshwar, Pratapgad or Ajanta caves. There is no such place of tourist's interest in the district, neither there is any noteworthy hill-station.

* Source: Road Transport Officer, Kolhapur Region.

CHAPTER 7. Communications. TRAVEL AND TOURIST FACILITIES.

But the stately appearance of the Sangli city, its neatness and healthy climate, industrial growth in the vicinity, development of the Miraj town, etc., have assisted to extend the transport facilities in the district.

The State Transport has provided bus transport facilities to important cities and towns in Maharashtra like Poona, Kolhapur, Sholapur, Ratnagiri, Chiplun, Pandharpur, etc. Private taxis also ply between nearby towns like Miraj and Kolhapur. Tourists, on sight seeing tour of the South can easily reach Kolhapur or Poona by railway from Miraj after visiting some places of interest in Sangli district. State Transport services are the most convenient means of conveyance for a tourist to reach any part of South Maharashtra from Sangli.

As regards residential facilities, there are many lodging and boarding houses in Sangli and at other towns like Miraj and Tasgaon. The Government of Maharashtra have maintained a number of Rest Houses and Inspection Bungalows in the district. Formerly, these Rest Houses were meant only for Government Officers on duty but now they are made available to the public if not occupied by the officials on duty. A reasonable rent, depending upon the class of the Rest House is charged for the occupation of the same.

Rest Houses are located at the following places in the district—

Ashta, Budhgaon, Bhavaninagar, Jath, Kawathe Mahankal, Kasegaon, Miraj, Sangli and Vita.

These Rest Houses are equipped with furniture, mattresses, crockery and utensils.

POSTS AND TELEGRAPHS.

There is a postal division at Sangli maintained by the Posts and Telegraphs Department. Besides the chief receiving and distributing head office at Sangli, there are number of sub-offices, combined, i.e., Post and Telegraph Offices and, branch offices in the district, as given below.*

Taluka (1)	No. of towns (2)	No. of villages (3)	No. of Sub-offices (4)	No. of Branch Offices (5)	No. of Telegraph Offices (6)
Jath	1	96	1	39	1
Khanapur	3	128	5	63	1
Miraj	9	83	21	56	10
Shirala.. .. .	..	80	2	21	1
Tasgaon	6	67	7	44	3
Walwa	8	48	4	40	3
District Total ..	27	502	40	263	19

* Position as on 1-9-1963.

The taluka-wise list of post-offices of various categories is given below.

Jath Taluka.

Sub-office.—Jath—It provides Telegraph as well as Telephone facilities.

Branch Offices:—

(1) Ankale.	(2) Ankalagi.	(3) Asangi-Jath.
(4) Asangi (Karajgi).	(5) Avandhi.	(6) Baj.
(7) Balgaon.	(8) Banali.	(9) Basargi.
(10) Bevnoor.	(11) Billur.	(12) Boblad Jodar.
(13) Boblad-Kontyara.	(14) Borgi Kh.	(15) Dafalapur.
(16) Daribadachi.	(17) Girgaon.	(18) Jirgyal.
(19) Kosari.	(20) Kumbhari.	(21) Madgyal.
(22) Mendhegiri.	(23) Muchandi.	(24) Nigadi Kh.
(25) Revanal.	(26) Sankh.	(27) Shegaon.
(28) Shinganhalli.	(29) Sonyal.	(30) Suslad.
(31) Tikundi.	(32) Umadi.	(33) Umrani.
(34) Utagi.	(35) Walekhindi.	(36) Walsang.
(37) Washan.	(38) Yelvi.	(39) Dhavadwadi.

Khanapur Taluka.

Sub-Offices:—

(1) Atpadi. (2) Kadegaon.

(3) Khanapur. (4) Mahuli.

(5) Vita.

Telegraph and telephone facilities are available at Vita.

Branch Offices:—

(1) Alsund.	(21) Ghoti Kh.
(2) Ambak.	(22) Gomewadi.
(3) Amrapur.	(23) Hanmant Vadiye.
(4) Balvadi (Bhalvani).	(24) Hingangaon Bk.
(5) Balvadi (Khanapur).	(25) Hivare.
(6) Bamani.	(26) Hivathad.
(7) Banpuri.	(27) Jondhalkhindi.
(8) Banur.	(28) Kadepur.
(9) Bhalvani.	(29) Karanje.
(10) Bhikawadi Bk.	(30) Kargani.
(11) Bhikawadi Kh.	(31) Karve.
(12) Chikhalhol.	(32) Kharsundi.
(13) Chinchani (Mangrul).	(33) Kherade Bk.
(14) Chinchani (Ambak).	(34) Lengare.
(15) Devikhindi.	(35) Mohi.
(16) Devrashtre.	(36) Nagewadi.
(17) Dhavaleshwar.	(37) Nelkaranji.
(18) Dighanchi.	(38) Nerli.
(19) Gardi.	(39) Nevari.
(20) Ghanand.	(40) Nimbavade.

CHAPTER 7. Communications. POSTS AND TELEGRAPHS.

Branch offices—contd.—

(41) Palashi.
(42) Pare.
(43) Ramapur.
(44) Renavi.
(45) Salshinge.
(46) Shalgaon.
(47) Shetphale.
(48) Shirasgaon.
(49) Shivani.
(50) Sultangade.
(51) Sonkire.
(52) Tadasar.
(53) Tadavale.
(54) Tondoli.
(55) Vadiye Raibag.
(56) Vejegaon.
(57) Vihapur.
(58) Wadagaon Mohite.
(59) Wangi.
(60) Wasambe.
(61) Yetagaon.
(62) Zare.

Miraj Taluka.

Sub-Offices:—

(1) Arag.
(2) Budhgaon (telegraph as well as telephone).
(3) Kawathe Mahankal (telegraph).
(4) Malgaon.
(5) Dhalgaon.
(6) Kavalapur.
(7) Madhavnagar (telegraph as well as telephone).
(8) Mhaisal.
(9) Sangli (telegraph as well as telephone).
(10) Wanlesswadi, Sangli (telegraph as well as telephone).
(11) Willingdon College, Sangli (telegraph).
(12) Sangli Town.
(13) Old Sangli.
(14) Ganapati Peth, Sangli Extension, Sangli.
(15) Radhakrishna.
(16) Gajanan Mills, Sangli.
(17) Market Yard, Sangli (telegraph as well as telephone).
(18) Miraj (telegraph and telephone).
(19) Miraj Mission Hospital (telegraph as well as telephone).
(20) Miraj Station (telegraph as well as telephone).

Branch Offices:—

(1) Agalgaon.
(2) Ankali.
(3) Arewadi.
(4) Bedag.
(5) Belunki.
(6) Bhose.
(7) Bisur.
(8) Bolwad.
(9) Borgaon.
(10) Chorochi.
(11) Deshing.
(12) Dhawali.
(13) Dhulgaon Agran.
(14) Digraj Kasba.
(15) Dudhgaon.
(16) Ghatnandre.
(17) Ghorpadi.
(18) Gundewaoi.
(19) Haripur.
(20) Hingangaon.
(21) Irali.
(22) Jaigavan.
(23) Jakhapur.
(24) Kalambi.
(25) Karnal.
(26) Kavathe Mahankal.
(27) Kerewadi.
(28) Khanderajuri.
(29) Kharkatwadi.
(30) Kharsing.

Branch Offices—contd.—

(31) Khatav.
(32) Kognoli.
(33) Kokale.
(34) Karoli Mouje.
(35) Karoli.
(36) Kuchi.
(37) Kuktoli.
(38) Kundalapur.
(39) Kupwadi.
(40) Langarpeth.
(41) Lingnoor.
(42) Malangaon.
(43) Mallewadi.
(44) Nangole.
(45) Narwad.
(46) Ranjani.
(47) Salagare.
(48) Sandoli.
(49) Sangalwadi.
(50) Shipur.
(51) Shirdhon.
(52) Soni.
(53) Tisangi.
(54) Tung.
(55) Yerandoli.

Shirala Mahal

Sub-Offices: —

(1) Shirala (Telegraph as well as Telephone).
(2) Bilashi.

Branch Offices: —

(1) Arale.
(2) Biur.
(3) Charan.
(4) Dhamavade.
(5) Ingrul.
(6) Kanadur.
(7) Kande.
(8) Khujgaon.
(9) Kokrud.
(10) Mangale.
(11) Nigadi.
(12) Pachumbri.
(13) Padali.
(14) Panumbre Tarf Warun.
(15) Red.
(16) Rile.
(17) Sagaon.
(18) Shirshi.
(19) Takawe.
(20) Wakurde Bk.
(21) Yelapur.

Tasgaon Taluka.

Sub-Offices: —

(1) Bhilawadi
(2) Kundal (Telegraph)
(3) Palus
(4) Savalaj
(5) Tasgaon (Telegraph as well as Telephone)
(6) Visapur
(7) Kirloskarwadi (Telegraph as well as Telephone)

Branch Offices:—

(1) Bhilawadi Railway Station.
(2) Manerajuri.
(3) Amnapur.
(4) Andhali.
(5) Anjani.
(6) Ankalkhop.
(7) Arawade.
(8) Bambavade.
(9) Borgaon.
(10) Brahamanal.
(11) Burli.

CHAPTER 7. Communications. POSTS AND TELEGRAPHS.

Tasgaon Taluka—*contd.*

Branch Offices—contd.—

(12) Chinchani.
(13) Dhavali.
(14) Dongarsoni.
(15) Dudhond.
(16) Gavan.
(17) Ghogaon.
(18) Hatnur.
(19) Jarandi.
(20) Kavathe-Ekand.
(21) Khusgaon.
(22) Kumtha.
(23) Limb.
(24) Lode.
(25) Manjarde.
(26) Morale.
(27) Nagarale.
(28) Nagthane.
(29) Nandre.
(30) Nimbalak.
(31) Nimni.
(32) Ped.
(33) Punadi Tasgaon.
(34) Punadi Tarf Walwa.
(35) Savarde.
(36) Turchi.
(37) Upalavi.
(38) Vadgaon.
(39) Vasagade.
(40) Waiphale.
(41) Yelavi.
(42) Audumbar.
(43) Ramanand Nagar.
(44) Shidhewadi.

Walwa Taluka.

Sub-offices:—

(1) Ashta (Telegraph as well as Telephone).
(2) Uran Islampur (Telegraph as well as Telephone).
(3) Walwa.
(4) Kasegaon (Telegraph).

Branch Offices:

(1) Aitavade Bk.
(2) Aitavade Kh.
(3) Bagani.
(4) Bahe.
(5) Bahadurwadi.
(6) Bavachi.
(7) Bhavaninagar.
(8) Bichud.
(9) Borgaon.
(10) Chikurde.
(11) Dhavali.
(12) Gotkhindi.
(13) Itkare.
(14) Khed.
(15) Kalamwadi.
(16) Kameri.
(17) Kapuskhed.
(18) Karve.
(19) Killa Machhindragad.
(20) Koregaon.
(21) Kurlap.
(22) Ladegaon.
(23) Narsingpur.
(24) Nerla.
(25) Ozarde.
(26) Peth.
(27) Rethare-Dharan.
(28) Rethare-Harnax.
(29) Sakharale.
(30) Shigaon.
(31) Shirate.
(32) Takari.
(33) Tambave.
(34) Tandulwadi.
(35) Tujarpur.
(36) Vashi.
(37) Vategaon.
(38) Yede-Machhindra.
(39) Yede-Nipani.
(40) Yelur.

Communications.

TELEPHONES.

Telecommunication has increased to a great extent during the last ten years. With the development in the industrial field and increase in business activity the demand for telecommunication has risen considerably. Since the interests of the business in the district have come to be involved with those at Bombay, Kolhapur, Poona, Belgaum and the surrounding towns the necessity of telephone facility was keenly felt.

The history of telephone exchanges in the district can be traced to 1949, in which year the Sangli Telephone Exchange was opened. Subsequently two more exchanges, one at Miraj and another at Islampur, were opened in 1956 and 1962, respectively.

Sangli Exchange.

It was opened with a capacity of 100 lines with 36 working connections. The capacity of the exchange was later increased to 460 lines, and the working connections to 436 consequent upon the growing demand. Further expansion of the line capacity is under consideration.

The Sangli exchange is the parent trunk exchange for Miraj, Jaysingpur, Tasgaon, Athani auto-exchanges and a number of trunk and local public call offices. Recently the Government have decided to make Miraj and Jaysingpur exchanges as parts of Sangli exchange. This will facilitate local telephone calls covering these three towns. Additional junction lines between Sangli, Miraj and Jaysingpur are also sanctioned.

Miraj Exchange.

It was opened in March 1956 with a capacity of 50 lines and 28 working connections. Subsequently the line capacity was increased to 100 due to acute demand. The working connections were 87 in March 1963. The capacity of the exchange is proposed to be stepped up to 200 lines.

Islampur Exchange.

This auto-exchange with a line capacity of 50 was opened for operations in October 1962. The number of working connections was 24 up to March 1963.

Besides the above exchanges, trunk, public call facilities are made available at Ashta and Shirala.

The following trunk line alignments are available in Sangli district:—

	Outlets		Outlets
(1) Bombay ..	2	(8) Kudachi ..	1
(2) Poona	1	(9) Kagwad ..	1
(3) Kolhapur ..	3	(10) Jaysingpur. ..	1
(4) Karad	1	(11) Miraj	1
(5) Belgaum ..	1	(12) Kurundwad ..	1
(6) Tasgaon ..	1	(13) Athani ..	1
(7) Vita	1		

COMMUNITY RADIO SETS.

The Government of Maharashtra has introduced the Radio Broadcasting Scheme, which is made applicable to Sangli district also. Under this Scheme, the Directorate of Publicity provides

CHAPTER 7.

Communications.

COMMUNITY RADIO SETS.

radio sets to rural and semi-urban areas with the provision of maintenance and servicing. Dry batteries are provided to the battery radio sets.

The Community radio sets are exclusively meant for the use of public and parties concerned are required to tune radio programmes broadcast from All-India Radio, and especially programmes for the villagers and workers.

For the installation of the set the parties concerned are to contribute Rs. 150 for an electric set and Rs. 170 for a battery set. In addition, they have also to contribute Rs. 60 for maintenance inclusive of provision for battery and radio licence fee.

The benefits of the scheme are availed of to a considerable extent in Sangli district. As many as 252 radio sets had been installed as on 31st July 1964.

Following are the talukawise names of villages in which radio sets have been installed.

TABLE No. 7

NAMES OF VILLAGES AND TOWNS IN SANGLI DISTRICT HAVING COMMUNITY RADIO SETS UNDER THE RURAL BROADCASTING CONTRIBUTORY SCHEME

(Position as on 31-7-64.)

(1) JATH TALUKA

1. Achakan Halli.
2. Asangi.
3. Ankale.
4. Ankalgi.
5. Bihur.
6. Balantoshi.
7. Balgaon.
8. Baj.
9. Boblad Kontiava.
10. Dorli.
11. Dhalwawadi.
12. Dhaphalapur.
13. Girgaon.
14. Gudapur.
15. Gulgunginal.
16. Halli.
17. Jalihal Bk.
18. Jiragol.
19. Kumbhari.
20. Khalati M.
21. Kanthi.
22. Kosari.
23. Karajagi.
24. Khairav.
25. Konbagi.
26. Muchardi.
27. Marabagi.
28. Nigodi Kd.
29. Pachapur.
30. Sankh.
31. Vajarwadi.
32. Vhaspeth.

(2) KHANAPUR TALUKA

1. Amarapur.
2. Ambak.
3. Asad.
4. Apshinge.
5. Balwadi.
6. Bhikwadi.
7. Bhibhutwadi.
8. Bombewadi.
9. Bhood.
10. Bamani.
11. Dhawaleshwar.
12. Devrashtre.
13. Devikhindi.
14. Ghoti Kd.
15. Gharniki.
16. Gomewadi.

(2) KHANAPUR TALUKA—*contd.*

17. Galvewadi.
18. Ghanwad.
19. Hingangaon Bk.
20. Hanumantvadiye.
21. Chincholi.
22. Hivare.
23. Jambhulani.
24. Khanapur.
25. Karve.
26. Kharsundi.
27. Khambaleaundh.
28. Kadegaon.
29. Karanje.
30. Kumbhargaon.
31. Kalambi.
32. Kamath.
33. Kherade Vita.
34. Kamalapur.
35. Kotawade.
36. Lingivare.
37. Mohite Wadgaon.
38. Mohi.
39. Nimbovadi.
40. Nagewadi.
41. Nelkaranji.
42. Nerli.
43. Nhavi.
44. Newari.
45. Pimpri Bk.
46. Pimpri Kd.
47. Palshi.
48. Padali Asat.
49. Rampur.
50. Revangaon.
51. Rajewadi.
52. Salshinge.
53. Shirasgaon.
54. Shirgaon Rampur.
55. Shivani.
56. Tandulwadi.
57. Upalewangi.
58. Vejegaon.
59. Vasumbe.
60. Vita.
61. Walwan.
62. Wadiye Raibag.
63. Walkhad.
64. Wazar.
65. Yede.
66. Kurli.
67. Ghanwad.
68. Zare.
69. Keutholi.
70. Hingangade.

(3) MIRAJ TALUKA

1. Arewadi.
2. Agalgaon.
3. Alkud (S).
4. Alkud (M).
5. Borgaon.
6. Bhose.
7. Balaki.
8. Chorache.
9. Dhudhe Bahvi.
10. Dulagaon.
11. Dhalagaon.
12. Dashing.
13. Dhalewadi.
14. Inamdhani.
15. Erali
16. Ghat Nandre.
17. Ghorpadi.
18. Gundewadi.
19. Hingangaon.
20. Haroti.
21. Jakhapur.
22. Kuchi.
23. Kavalpur.
24. Koganoli.
25. Kharsing.
26. Kouthe.
27. Karoli M.
28. Kanadwadi.
29. Kavathe Mahankal.
30. Kupawad.
31. Kalambi.
32. Kundapur.
33. Kurali-Uplawe.
34. Kokale.
35. Langarpeth.
36. Lingnoor.
37. Mahishar.
38. Malgaon.
39. Malangaon.
40. Mallewadi.
41. Narwad.
42. Nangole.
43. Rayewadi.
44. Ranjani.

CHAPTER 7.

Communications.

COMMUNITY RADIO SETS.

(3) MIRAJ TALUKA—*contd.*

45. Savali.
46. Soni.
47. Salgare.
48. Shiradhon.
49. Shipur.
50. Shindewadi.
51. Tisangi.
52. Tanang.
53. Vaddi.

(4) SHIRALA TALUKA

1. Antri Bk.
2. Arale.
3. Bilashi.
4. Biur.
5. Bhatshirgaon.
6. Chincholi.
7. Chandoli.
8. Chikhali.
9. Charan.
10. Hategaon.
11. Ingrul.
12. Khed.
13. Kokarud.
14. Karanguli.
15. Kande.
16. Kalambre.
17. Mangarul.
18. Manadur.
19. Mohare.
20. Nathawade.
21. Nigadi.
22. Natoli.
23. Padali.
24. Phupere.
25. Punwat.
26. Panumbare.
27. Rile.
28. Red.
29. Sagaon.
30. Shirala.
31. Shirasi.
32. Sonawade.
33. Tadavale.
34. Upavale.

(5) TASGAON TALUKA

1. Alate.
2. Amanapur.
3. Andhali.
4. Anjani.
5. Ankalkhop.
6. Arawade.
7. Balgawade.
8. Bambawade.
9. Bastwade.
10. Bendri.
11. Bhilawadi.
12. Borgaon.
13. Bramhnal.
14. Burli.
15. Chinchani.
16. Chikhalgothan.
17. Dahiwadi.
18. Dorli.
19. Dhamani Khalsa.
20. Dhavali.
21. Dahyari.
22. Dhulgaon Dubar.
23. Dongarsoni.
24. Dudhondi.
25. Gavan.
26. Gaurgaon.
27. Hatnoli.
28. Hatnoor.
29. Jarandi.
30. Khatav.
31. Kaulge.
32. Kouthe Ekhand.
33. Khusgaon.
34. Kumathe.
35. Kundal.
36. Limb.
37. Londe.
38. Manjarde.
39. Matkunki.
40. Manerajuri.
41. Morale.
42. Morale Rajapur.
43. Nagrale.
44. Nagathane.
45. Nagaon Kavathe.
46. Nagaon Nimni.
47. Nimni.
48. Nimbalk.
49. Padali.
50. Palus.

(5) TASGAON TALUKA—*contd.*

51. Ped.
52. Punadi Tarf Tasgaon.
53. Punadi Tarf Walwa.
54. Ramanandnagar.
55. Rajapur.
56. Savalaj.
57. Savarde.
58. Shirgaon Kouthe.
59. Shirgaon Visapur.
60. Tupari.
61. Turchi.
62. Upalavi.
63. Vasagade.
64. Visapur.
65. Vadgaon Anjani.
66. Waghapur.
67. Waifale.
68. Wajarchaunde.
69. Wasambe.
70. Yelavi.
71. Ghogaon.

(6) WALWA TALUKA

1. Aitavade Bk.
2. Aitavade Kd.
3. Bagani.
4. Bavchi.
5. Borgaon.
6. Chikurde.
7. Kameri.
8. Karanjwade.
9. Karve.
10. Kasegaon.
11. Kurlap.
12. Ladegaon.
13. Nerle.
14. Nagardavli.
15. Narsingpur.
16. Mardwadi.
17. Shirgaon.
18. Shirate.
19. Shene.
20. Shirgaon W.
21. Tandulwadi.
22. Washi.
23. Ozarde.
24. Yede-Nipani.
25. Dudhari.

CHAPTER 8 — MISCELLANEOUS OCCUPATIONS

INTRODUCTION.

IN THIS CHAPTER ARE DESCRIBED SOME OF THE OCCUPATIONS which neither come under the purview of the Factory Act nor under the jurisdiction of Shops and Establishments Act. Most of them occupy a prominent position in the present economic system. Their number as well as employment in them have been on the increase since the Second World War. The factors responsible for the growth of these occupations are: growth of population, change in the pattern of living of the people and the ever increasing needs of the people. Their pattern of growth shows the even tenor of the changing requirements of tastes and fashions of the people. For example, new fashions in apparel gave rise to the establishment of a number of readymade clothes' shops. Changes in the food habits have been responsible for the establishment of hotels and restaurants.

A sample survey was conducted in certain selected towns and areas in order to have a broad picture of these occupations in Sangli district. Samples of different sizes and of different income groups from different localities were taken to make them as representative as possible.

The survey covered the following occupations.—tailoring, hair-cutting, pan bidi, preparation of milk and milk products, manufacture of aerated water, laundering, lodging and boarding, cycle repairing, flour-milling, hotelling and restaurants, teaching, fruits selling, rope-making, typing, bucket-making, etc. The survey was conducted at Sangli, Miraj, Tasgaon, Khanapur, Vita, Islampur, Peth and Ashta.

TAILORING.

The tailor has since long been an important constituent of the society and has established himself in all parts of the district. Generally he is found to be dependent exclusively on the earnings from his profession, as he hardly has any other sources of income.

Nowadays tailoring has become an important avenue of employment. Day-to-day changing fashion and fairly high stitching charges attract many men to this occupation. According to 1961 Census there were 710 tailors in the district. The survey revealed that almost all the establishments had paid workers either on daily or on monthly fixed wages.

CHAPTER 8.

Miscellaneous Occupations.

TAILORING.

In villages, a tailor establishes his shop in a small room with his equipment such as a sewing machine, a pair of scissors and a measuring tape. There are two or more benches and chairs, mostly worn out. In most of the cases the tailor works alone. He attends to the various duties of collecting orders, of taking measurements, cutting, stitching and delivering the stitched clothes. In cities the case is entirely different. The tailors do not necessarily belong to the tailoring class. They employ workers and get the work done. Generally, the owner tailor does cutting, the most difficult and skilful task, which can be acquired through long experience. The work of stitching is done by others.

The tailor stitches shirts, pants, coats, waistcoat, blouses, bodices and trousers. As there are no training facilities, one has to undergo apprenticeship before taking up the profession.

Different rates are charged for different types of clothes depending upon the types of fashions. However, for ordinary stitching the rates are more or less uniform. The amount of work that a tailor gets depends on the location of his shop and his skill. In villages a tailor earns from Rs. 2 to Rs. 3 a day.

The rent for the establishment constitutes a major part of the expenditure pattern of this occupation. It is especially considerable in cities and towns where the amount of business depends on the location of the establishment and its upkeep. It ranges from Rs. 25 to Rs. 100. Repair and renewal constitute the other important item of expenditure. Expenditure on items like thread, buttons, oil, etc., comes next.

HAIR-CUTTING.

Barbers are to be found even in the remote parts of the district. In the past they used to serve in religious functions too where their presence was obligatory. Nowadays these observances are fast disappearing.

Wherever possible a barber establishes a permanent shop or otherwise goes to the doors of his customers. In the past, this business was taken up by those who belonged to a particular community. In recent years, however, that social stigma, which was attached to it in the past, is not being observed strictly. Anyone, from any community, can take up this occupation as a career if he has initiative, capital and aptitude to adopt this occupation. Small establishments are the common feature of urban areas. If is only in big cities that haircutting saloons, provided with fine furniture, electricity, fans, light, radios, etc., are run. In some cases they are also equipped with modern means such as revolving chairs, electric appliances, radio sets, mirrors and good toilet services. This is regarded as the best method to attract more customers. Naturally the cost of maintaining the establisment goes up.

According to the 1951 Census, the total number of barbers in the earstwhile South Satara district was 819, which also included the number of beauty shopkeepers. By 1961 the number of such persons in Sangli district was 1271.

The tools and equipment of a hair cutting saloon are a pair of scissors, cropping machines, razors, while an itinerant barber pulls on with a set of tools. A saloon is usually equipped with simple chairs, tables and mirrors, most of which are out-of-date. It is only in big shops that revolving chairs, dressing tables, with mirrors on both sides, etc., are provided for among other amenities to the customers. The expenditure on tools and equipment of small, medium and big shops ranges from Rs. 200 to Rs. 300, Rs. 300 to Rs. 700 and from Rs. 700 to Rs. 1,000, respectively. But the investment of an itinerant barber comes to about Rs. 50. Where the occupation is a hereditary one, the tools are transferred from one person to another.

CHAPTER 8. Miscellaneous Occupations. HAIR-CUTTING. Tools and Equipment.

The itinerant barber works from dawn to dusk. His working hours are not uniform. On the other hand a saloon has fixed hours of work spread over partly in the morning and partly in the evening. The workers are paid either a fixed monthly salary or an agreed portion of the income of the establishment. The itinerant barber generally earns a rupee or two, depending upon the amount of work he gets during a day's time. The establishments, generally, are managed by the owners themselves either with the assistance of the family members or with the help of employed artisans, who may, usually, be his distant relatives.

Income and Expenditure.

No other operations are conducted such as wigmaking either at the established shops or by independent barbers. The survey showed that the daily gross income ranges from Rs. 3 to Rs. 4, from Rs. 5 to Rs. 8 and from Rs. 10 to Rs. 12 in case of small, medium and large establishments, respectively.

The rent and wages are the two most important items of expenditure which consume much of the income of the establishments The rent varies from Rs. 6 in case of a small establishment to Rs. 40 in case of a large establishment in the district. The other important item of expenditure is on cosmetics such as oil, soap, powder, snow, etc.

GOLDSMITHY.

In all seven establishments were surveyed. All of them were hereditary. Sale and manufacture of gold and silver ornaments was their principal occupation and moneylending was undertaken as a side business. They raised their capital requirements from their own resources.

The establishments are found to be scattered all over the district. The occupation demands high degree of skill on the part of an artisan which he can acquire only through years of experience.

Tools and Equipment.

The tools and equipment required are anvils, bellows, hammers, pincers, pots, crucibles, moulds, nails, etc., and machines like press, wire and plate machine and furniture such as cup-boards, benches, desks, etc. The cost of equipment varies from shop to shop.

CHAPTER 8. — Miscellaneous Occupations.

Almost all of the establishments surveyed were situated in owned premises. The one which was situated in rented premises paid Rs. 10 as rent.

GOLDSMITHY. Tools and Equipment.

The 1961 Census showed 883 persons as employed in this occupation in the district of whom few were employees. Many establishments were run on a proprietary basis. The capital investment varied from Rs. 2,000 to Rs. 40,000, consisting of gold and gold bullions, silver ornaments, furniture, and readymade gold ornaments of gold.

Gold Control Rules.

The Gold Control Rules promulgated under the Defence of India Act have come into force since 10th January 1963. The Rules in the initial stages prohibited all dealings in gold and making of new ornaments of gold with a purity of more than 14 carats. These rules have seriously disturbed the occupation by putting a considerable number of goldsmiths out of employment and leaving the shroffs idle. The habit of buying gold is widespread in the country, the demand for gold being for traditional purposes such as for marriages as well as for hoarding and speculation. The age-old habits and the demand for gold ornaments are hard to change. Gold ornaments of a purity permissible under the Rules are thus hardly in demand. A number of goldsmiths are gradually taking to other occupations. The Government is taking steps to rehabilitate the goldsmiths by providing facilities for training them in other crafts and extending financial assistance to them. The recent amendment in the Gold Control Rules makes provision for the remaking of existing gold ornaments. This is expected to provide employment to the members who have not yet been able to shift to other occupations.

PAN BIDI SHOPS.

The 1961 census returned 2545 persons as employed in this occupation.

A survey was conducted in order to get a clearcut idea of the occupation in the district. Different shops of different sizes from different places and localities were surveyed. The survey revealed the following observations:

Accessories.

The raw materials like betel leaves, betel-nut, catechu or *kath*, lime or *chuna* are bought in the local market from retail traders. Bidis are either bought or are manufactured at home with the help of paid workers. Some shops also keep post cards, envelopes, inland letters, match boxes, soaps etc., for sale. The total expenditure incurred for the purchase of these articles varies with the size of the shop and the ability of the owner to sell them. The monthly turnover, however, ranges from Rs. 600 to Rs. 75 in case of big and small shops, respectively.

Tools and Equipment.

The requirements of the shops are china pots to keep lime, nut-cutters, balances to weigh and a small cupboard to stock bidis and other articles. Generally these shops are decorated with photos and mirrors; and in big cities, they usually keep a radio set. The total cost of equipment comes to Rs. 500 except in case of some big shops.

PAN-BIDI SHOPS.

No fixed capital, as such, is required for this occupation other than that required for the purchase of raw material, tools and equipment. The business is effected on a cash basis and hence no capital is locked up. Daily purchases are made by keeping account with the retail traders.

Labour.

The occupation does not allow the employment of a large number of people due to its small size. In some cases the owner himself runs the business, without the assistance of a paid worker In case when the owner undertakes the manufacture of bidis, he employs workers on piece-rate wages. The daily earning of the workers ranged from Rs. 2 to Rs. 3. Since 1948, the bidi manufacturing industry has been brought under the purview of the Minimum Wages Act.

MILK AND MILK PRODUCTS.

The dairying business has become lucrative during recent times and is mostly centered in urban areas.

Seven dairies were surveyed which revealed the following observations:—

Equipment.

The equipment required consists of cream separator, butter churning machine, hand machine, few utensils for storing milk, tables, cupboards, etc. The cost of all these ranges from Rs. 1,000 to Rs. 5,000, according to the size and location of the shops.

All the shops surveyed were situated in rented premises. The rent varied from Rs. 20 to Rs. 30 according to the size and location. Other items of expenditure are electricity charges, water tax, licence fee, etc.

Capital investment.

The investment of capital also varied with the size of the establishment. The survey revealed that the investment ranged from Rs. 800 to Rs. 1,200, from Rs. 3,000 to Rs. 5.000 and from Rs. 10,000 to Rs. 15,000 in case of small, medium and big shops, respectively.

Curds, cheese, butter-milk and cream are the products for sale. Different shopkeepers charge different prices for their products depending upon the quality of the products they keep.

Most of the shops surveyed disclosed that they are managed by the owners themselves. The owners, generally, do not keep milch animals of their own but prefer to purchase milk from nearby villages with the help of their agents.

MANUFACTURE OF AERATED WATERS.

There are very few establishments of the kind in the district. Most of them are located in big towns. They undertake the manufacture of soda water, lemon and other cold drinks. A very small number of persons is engaged in this occupation.

Equipment.

The equipment of the shop consists of sodamaking machines, gas cylinders, boxes and furniture. The cost of equipment varied with the size of the shop and ranged from Rs. 1,000 to Rs. 1,500, from Rs. 2,400 to Rs. 3,000 and from Rs. 5,000 to Rs. 9,000 in case of small, medium and big shops, respectively.

CHAPTER 8.

Miscellaneous Occupations.

MANUFACTURE OF AERATED WATERS.

Generally, the work is done by the owner himself with the assistance of his family members. Sometimes, however, the owner employs one or two workers during summer when the business is brisk. Wages to outside labour when employed are paid in cash ranging from Rs. 15 to Rs. 45 per month.

Income and Expenditure.

The daily turnover in full season ranges between Rs. 75 and Rs. 100. Some of the establishments undertake the production of ice-candy sticks.

The materials required for the manufacture of aerated waters are; lemon, essence, sugar, syrups, fruit, juice, colour, ice, gas (in cylinder), milk, etc. Most of them are bought in local markets except gas, colour and essence which are purchased from Bombay or Poona.

The major items of expenditure are rent, wages, and raw materials. Rent depends on the location of the shop, nearness to a bazar place, etc.

LAUNDERING.

Generally, laundries are situated in the towns and very rarely in the villages. In villages these services are rendered by *dhobis*, belonging to a particular community. They go from house to house for the collection of clothes for washing and return them in the same manner. In towns in most cases, the customers take the clothes to the laundry and collect the same themselves.

Most of the establishments in the district are situated in Sangli and Miraj. There are a few shops at Ashta, Khanapur and Vita. Some of them undertake only ironing. Big laundries undertake services such as washing, dying, ironing, drycleaning, darning, etc. Some of them have electric washing machines.

Employment.

The 1951 census enumerated the total number of *dhobis* at 504 in the former South Satara district. The census of 1961 enumerates 1,052 persons as engaged in this occupation which includes washermen, dry cleaners, pressers, *dhobis*, etc.

A survey of the establishments of different sizes and of different income groups was conducted in Sangli district. It revealed that those who have taken up the occupation in cities have been pursuing it as their principal means of livelihood. In rural areas, it is a secondary means. Washerman in villages, in most cases, takes to agriculture if he owns a piece of land or otherwise works as a labourer on others farms.

Accessories.

Soap, washing soda, bleaching powder, starch, indigo and tinopal constitute the accessories of a washing establishment. In addition firewood and charcoal are used as fuel. The consumption of these materials depends on the total turnover of an establishment. The survey revealed that an average establishment spent about Rs. 50 to Rs. 70 on these items. Two establishments, one in Sangli and the other in Miraj, were found to have spent Rs. 800 and Rs. 655 respectively on these items.

LAUNDERING. Tools and EQUIPMENTS.

A small unit possesses tools and equipment such as a broken table or two, and an iron, and in many cases low-flat stools in addition. An average unit has table and chair, mostly of old type with open shelf for keeping the washed and ironed clothes. Such a unit may have more than one iron, depending upon the total turnover. The trough and buckets are the other items of equipment. Some big laundries use modern washing machines, electric irons, tables, chairs and shelves. The cost of the equipment of a small unit is about Rs. 200 and that of medium size from Rs. 800 to Rs. 1,200. A large sized unit in Sangli was found to have invested about Rs. 2,500 for purchasing its equipment.

Labour.

The nature of the occupation is such that the whole family, in some cases, serves as the working unit. In laundries, the working hours are fixed partly in the morning and partly in the evening. Workers are paid on piece-rate basis for the work of washing and ironing they undertake. In some big laundries different persons are allotted the work of washing, ironing, etc. Generally, they are paid between Rs. 1.50 and Rs. 3 daily.

The work of ironing and washing of clothes, bed sheets, etc., is undertaken. They also provide for drycleaning of woollen and silk articles.

Income.

The income of the units varied according to their size. The smallest unit earned about Rs. 80 per month. The income of medium-size unit varied between Rs. 200 and Rs. 250 while the big laundries earned more than Rs. 800 per month.

LODGING AND BOARDING.

The lodging and boarding establishments are not as numerous as the restaurants. They cluster about the commercial centres, the educational institutions, industrial centres, district places and taluka places. In many cases restaurants, also serve as boarding houses. They serve rice plates, full meals, etc. As compared to the boarding houses the number of lodging houses is quite few and the number of lodging and boarding houses is much fewer than both.

Expenditure.

Foodgrains, condiments and spices, groundnut oil, vegetables and ghee are the main provisions used. In non-vegetarian boardings, preparations of mutton, fish, eggs, etc., are also provided. Fifteen establishments in this category were surveyed. The monthly expenditure of the establishments on provisions was up to Rs. 2,600, up to Rs. 1,200 and up to Rs. 150 in case of big, medium and small establishments respectively.

Capital.

The investment on utensils, furniture and other items varied with the size and location of these establishments. The big, medium and small establishments were found to have invested Rs. 3,000, Rs. 2,000 and Rs. 150 to Rs. 400 respectively, on these items.

The survey revealed that not a single establishment had resorted to borrowing. Most of the required capital was raised through their own resources. The following Statement shows the figures

CHAPTER 8. Miscellaneous Occupations. LODGING AND BOARDING. Capital.

of fixed and working capital in some of the establishments in different places in Sangli district:—

Name of the place	Fixed capital (in Rs.)	Working capital (in Rs.)
(1)	(2)	(3)
Miraj	10,000	750
Sangli	10,000	800
Ashta	600	100
Peth	300	50
Khanapur	300	50
Vita	1,000	150

Income and Expenditure.

Only a small number of persons was employed in this occupation. Wages were not uniform throughout the district. The employees were paid monthly wages. In addition to the wages they were also given meals, tea, etc. Generally, they worked from morning till late in the evening.

The *khanawalis* or boardings serve meals in the morning and in the evening. The food may be either vegetarian or non-vegetarian as the customer demanded. Some of the boarding houses provide either of the two exclusively. The meals are provided either on the basis of full meals or on rice-plate (restricted) basis. Meals are also provided on monthly basis. The net income of a big establishment varies per month from Rs. 500 to Rs. 1,800. Income of medium ones is about Rs. 600 and of small ones about Rs. 100.

CYCLE REPAIRING.

The majority of the cycle shops in this category are in Sangli, Miraj and Islampur towns. The main business of these small shops is to repair, to sell second hand cycles and the spare parts and to give cycles on hire.

Capital.

The capital investment varies from Rs. 1,000 to Rs. 5,000 according to the size of the establishment. One establishment, of considerable size and doing business for a long time, has an investment of about Rs. 25,000 in the occupation. Some establishments were proprietary concerns where no outside labour was employed. Instead paid servants were employed, their pay ranging from Rs. 30 to Rs. 60.

Most of the shops were housed in rented premises, the rent varying according to the size and location of the shops. The maximum rent paid was Rs. 30 per month.

Accessories.

Repairing tools, solution, tubes, etc., constituted the accessories which were available in the local markets. The amount spent on them depended on the total turnover and varied from Rs. 25 to Rs. 125 per month.

CHAPTER 8. Miscellaneous Occupations. FLOUR MILLS. Tools and Equipment.

The tools and equipment consist of electric motors, grinders, implements for repairing the machines, canvas, cotton belt, etc.

A machine costs from Rs. 400 to Rs. 5,000. Most of the capital is raised by the owners from their own resources. The survey revealed that only two establishments borrowed the required capital.

Labour and Income.

Most of the flour mills were operated by their proprietors themselves. In some cases, labourers are employed and paid from Rs. 45 to Rs. 50 per month. The establishments surveyed were situated in rented premises, and the rent varied from Rs. 8 to Rs. 30.

The income ranged from Rs. 125 to Rs. 300 depending on the daily turnover of the business.

HOTELS AND RESTAURANTS.

The changing pattern of the socio-economic life of the community has made the existence of the restaurants and hotels an absolute necessity in a village or a town. As such, a number of them could be found in every town and village. Some of them exclusively provide tea, coffee and milk. Others are engaged in serving hot as well as cold drinks, eatables and in a few cases they provide meals mostly on the rice-plate basis. Tea shops can always be found in rural areas whereas hotels and restaurants are mostly located in towns.

Most of the establishments surveyed were from Sangli, Miraj, Khanapur, Vita, Tasgaon, Islampur and Peth.

Employment.

In the erstwhile South Satara, the total number of persons engaged in this occupation was 1,435 of whom 82 were women. According to the 1961 Census, it was 1,316 of whom 102 were women.

Accessories

Rice, wheat, gram-flour (*besan*), semolina (*rava*), ghee, Vanaspati oil, groundnut oil, condiments and spices, vegetables, onion, potato, tea powder, sugar and milk are the articles required daily. Almost all of them are available in local markets.

Equipment.

In villages, furniture consists of benches, out-dated tables and aluminium utensils, etc. In cities most of the hotels are better equipped with chairs and tables, beautifully decorated mirrors hanging on the walls, a radio set, etc. Besides, stainless steel or copper utensils for preparing articles, glasses and crockery are used by almost all establishments. The expenditure on these was Rs. 150 and Rs. 500 in case of small and medium establishments, respectively; large establishment spent about Rs. 1,000 on these items.

Employment.

The employment in such establishments consists of cooks, waiters, cleaners, etc. The work of a cook is to prepare various types of food and eatables, of a waiter to serve the orders, indoor as well as outdoor, placed by customers and of a cleaner to clean the utensils, tables and the flooring. The number in each category is determined by the size of the establishment. In a small unit one man performs all the odd jobs.

CHAPTER 8. Miscellaneous Occupations. HOTELS AND RESTAURANTS. Income and Expenditure.

Employees were paid according to the work allotted to them. Cooks were usually paid higher wages, followed by waiters, suppliers and boys employed as cleaners and for other extra work. Usually cooks, waiters and cleaners were paid Rs. 80, Rs. 60 and Rs. 25, respectively, as monthly wages. Besides, they were given meals, snacks and tea twice a day.

The monthly turnover of some of the establishments surveyed is given in the following table:—

Name of the place	Monthly turnover	Net income
(1)	(2)	(3)
	Rs.	Rs.
Vita	750	300
Sangli	6,000	950
Tasgaon	700	350
Ashta	600	250
Islampur	1,870	275
Miraj	5,300	700
Peth	600	150

The main items of expenditure were provisions, rent and wages, the item of provision being the largest. The rate of wages paid to the different categories of employees varied according to the size of the establishment. The rent varied according to the location, size and type of accommodation and ranged from Rs. 40 to Rs. 140.

MEDICAL, LEGAL AND TEACHING PROFESSIONS

In the category of Arts, Letters and Sciences enumerated in the Census, doctors, lawyers and teachers form an important group. An increase in the number of persons following these professions is an indication of the educational achievement of the society. A survey was conducted in Khanapur, Shirala, Walwa, Tasgaon, Jath, Miraj and Ashta to assess the economic status of persons belonging to this category of profession.

Income and Employment.

The income of a teacher was found to be between Rs. 125 and Rs. 300 and that of lecturers and professors between Rs. 300 and Rs. 600.

The 1951 census reported the total number of persons engaged in educational services and research at 2,767 in the former South Satara district. Out of this 464 were females. In 1961 the number of primary teachers, high school teachers and professors in Sangli district was 4,301, 820 and 146, respectively. The number of primary schools, high schools and colleges was 1,046, 95 and 5, respectively. By 31st March 1962, the number of primary schools increased to 1,102, whereas the number of secondary schools stood at 127. In 1962-63 there were nine colleges in the district.

MEDICAL, LEGAL AND TEACHING PROFESSIONS.

The medical profession has become very lucrative during the last two decades. The number of medical graduates has increased considerably. Nowadays, a doctor or a registered medical practitioner even in the villages is not a rarity.

Income and Employment.

People have become more health conscious today and hence there is a substantial increase in the number of medical practitioners. The income of a doctor ranged between Rs. 300 and 1,200 per month.

According to 1951 census persons engaged in this profession in the former South Satara district numbered 875 including medical practitioners and persons employed in other health services. In 1961, there were 470 medical practitioners in the Sangli district. Besides, there were 882 nurses, pharmacists and other technicians.

Along with the general increase in the educational standards, the number of persons taking to law has registered an upward trend. However, all of them do not take up to practising in the Courts. They go in for different jobs, such as secretarial work, labour officers, income-tax practitioners, etc. Those in the legal field specialize either on civil or criminal side.

In 1961, the Census enumerated the number of persons engaged in this profession at 346 in the former South Satara district, including those in services. At the time of the survey the total number of pleaders was 194 of whom three were barristers.

The income of a lawyer varies between Rs. 300 and Rs. 1,000 depending on the reputation and the extent of practice.

RELIGIOUS PROFESSION.

Over a period of years this profession has been losing its stronghold in the society which it once held. With the spread of education and the advance made by science and technology, people have become sceptic and have started challenging the old dogmas. People also have developed apathy towards religious observances. The religious profession has, therefore, lost its former importance and subsequently the number of persons following the profession has considerably gone down.

This is, however, not true in case of villages where the priest is still a highly respected person.

In rural areas the earnings of a priest vary between Rs. 30 and Rs. 40 a month and in urban areas they are between Rs. 40 and Rs. 60 a month.

While the 1951 census gave the total number of priests at 677 including 66 female priests, it was only 344 according to the 1961 census.

OTHER OCCUPATIONS.

Besides, there are many other occupations which are of a specialised nature. Following occupations can be included in this category. They are bucket-making, tinsmithy, pillow-making, frame-making, flower-selling watch-repairing, etc.

CHAPTER 9—ECONOMIC TRENDS

CHAPTER 9.

Economic Trends.

INTRODUCTION.

THIS CHAPTER IS DIVIDED INTO TWO SECTIONS. The first section deals with the standard of living of the people in the rural and urban areas and the second section entitled "economic prospects" briefly describes the economic potentialities of the district.

SECTION I—STANDARD OF LIVING.

STANDARD OF LIVING.

The standard of living of the people could be defined as the necessaries, comforts and luxuries to the consumption of which they are accustomed. This standard relates to a given set of circumstances which include income, prices, conditions of supply and demand, etc. This section does not deal with the concept of the standard of living as understood in this sense of the term due to the obvious limitations upon such an analysis. An attempt is made here to study the income and expenditure pattern of families belonging to different income groups for a particular year rather than for a period of time. Broad conclusions are drawn on the basis of factual study. This study does not indicate as to whether people are better off or worse off today than what they were in the past; but it merely indicates the changing patterns of the standard of living. The places and families selected for the survey are such as to represent broadly the pattern of income and expenditure in the district.

A survey was conducted in 1963 and the account that follows is based on the information collected and on-the-spot observations made during the course of the survey.

The families were categorised in three income groups, *viz.*, the lower, the middle and the higher, both for urban and rural areas, each representing annual incomes up to Rs. 1,200, between Rs. 1,200 and Rs. 3,000 and Rs. 3,000 and above, respectively. The other details of families such as number of members, age, relationship with the head, number of earning members, educational qualifications, civil condition, subsidiary occupations were also taken into consideration. For the sake of analysis, a family is taken to be of four adult members, i.e., three adults and two minors.

The income of a family or a household was taken to represent its earnings from all sources, including earnings from landed or other types of property, business or profession.

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Economic Trends.

STANDARD OF LIVING.

The pattern of expenditure is the sum total of several socio-economic, religious and environmental forces and the nature of the work in which its members are engaged.

It will be interesting to study the consumption pattern in the light of these various forces. Moreover, advancement in the field of economy brings new things to the fore, thereby affecting the consumption pattern. The pattern of consumption undergoes constant changes. The comforts and luxuries of yesterday become necessaries of today. Consumption, therefore, becomes a measuring rod of the standard of living of the people. However, only a broad picture can be presented with the help of the sample survey.

The different items of consumers goods and services are grouped into two broad categories *viz.*, food group and non-food group. Having regard to the comparatively small size of the sample survey and the limitations on the accuracy and authenticity of the information gathered, it is not possible to give estimates of expenditure on individual items or even smaller group of items. The food group is, therefore, divided into five sub-groups, *viz.*, (I) cereals and pulses, (ii) milk and its products, (iii) edible and related products, (iv) vegetables and (v) other items in which may be included sugar, meat, fish, eggs, salt, spices etc. Similarly, the non-food group is divided into five sub-groups *viz.*, (I) clothing, (ii) fuel and light, (iii) education, (iv) rent and medical expenses and (v) others including expenses on religious matters, entertainment, transport, social obligations etc.

The following is a general description of the income and expenditure pattern of different classes of families in the urban and rural areas.

Urban Areas. *Group I.*

People in this group were from well-to-do families. This group was composed of big landlords, prosperous businessmen, doctors, commission agents, industrialists, highly paid government and non government officials, pleaders, owners of transport companies etc. The income of these people ranged from Rs. 3,000 to Rs. 25,000 per annum or even more.

The consumption pattern of this group differed remarkably from that of the other two groups. Increase in income automatically increases the purchasing power. Items of luxury and comforts took prominent place in the consumption list of this class.

The monthly expenditure of this group ranged from Rs. 250 to Rs. 400. More than 50 per cent of the total expenditure was earmarked for necessities of life. In the category of food, cereals and pulses accounted for about 44 per cent of the expenditure. Among the rest of the food items, milk and milk products, oil and vegetables accounted for 21 per cent, 10 per cent and 11 per cent, respectively.

Group I.

The general pattern of expenditure has undergone a remarkable change, especially in this higher income group. The tendency of the people to have luxurious and comfortable living made them set aside a major part of their expenditure just to have the possession of such costly articles, which were to be rarely seen in the past, as radio sets, watches, electric fans, etc. Well-to-do families own bungalows, motor cars and motor-cycles. New finds in the field of cloth as terylene, decron, terywool, terene, rayon, nylon also take away a good share of their expenditure on non-food articles. The varieties of clothing differ widely in quality, fashion, decency and usage.

Educational expenditure was another significant constituent of a family budget of this group. In some of the families a fairly good amount was spent for this purpose.

Rent, another important constituent assumed a prime position in the expenditure list of this group. The houses were attractive, spacious, well-ventilated and in most cases with gardens. Such accommodation necessarily demands high rents which only the rich can afford to pay. However, the survey showed that more than 50 per cent of the families surveyed had their own houses.

In addition, they had costly furniture consisting of dining table, chairs, cots, cup-boards either made of wood or iron and steel, sofa-sets, full size mirrors and the like.

Besides, the household equipment of these families consisted of brass and copper utensils, crockery and stainless steel articles. Some of them possessed silver utensils as well. Some families reported their possession of gold and silver ornaments. Among costly garments *shalu*, *paithanis*, shawls, *jari* articles, woollen and terylene clothes were common.

After allowing a considerable amount of their total income for meeting expenses on necessaries, luxuries and comforts of life, people in this group, could save a portion of their income so as to provide for the future. A part of the income thus saved was invested in insurance policies, national savings certificates, shares and bank deposits. The total savings of the families surveyed were reported to the tune of Rs. 2 lakhs. Some debt was also reported. This was, for business purposes and was drawn with the intention of making long term investment in land, house and machinery.

The survey revealed that almost all persons received a good education. University education was a common phenomena in this group especially among the boys.

Group II.

The middle-income group consists of land holders, traders, employees in Government and private offices, teachers, doctors, pleaders, etc. The annual income of this group ranges between Rs. 1,200 and Rs. 3,000. This group constituted the "white

CHAPTER 9. Economic Trends. STANDARD OF LIVING. Urban Areas. Group II.

collared gentry" and balanced its income and expenditure to get maximum satisfaction out of the limited resources leaving behind a fraction as savings.

The consumption pattern of this class widely differed from that of group I and group III.

The total monthly expenditure of a household ranged between Rs. 130 and Rs. 175. Of the total expenditure 64 per cent was for food group out of which 34 per cent was for the purchase of cereals and pulses. Milk and its products, vegetables and oils consumed 15 per cent, 5 per cent and 5.67 per cent, respectively. Spices and sundry goods accounted for the rest. Amongst the non-food items clothing, medical aid and education assumed the highest priority. Education absorbed a sizeable portion of a family's expenditure. Almost in all the families surveyed, due importance was given to education. Expenditure on clothing was a lion's share of the total expenditure as people desired to look decent and fashionable It was noticed that expenditure on travelling and entertainment was on the increase.

Literacy and education.—Proportion of literacy was the same as in the case of a higher income group. It is education which signified them as white-collared gentry.

After meeting all the expenses a fraction of income was left out. This was either invested in insurance policies or in National Saving Certificates. Possession of gold and silver ornaments was also reported. Very few persons had incurred debts. Their household equipment consisted of utensils, mainly of stainless steel, furniture, clocks, radio, cycle, etc.

The condition of housing was in keeping with the levels of their income.

Group III.

This group stands at the lowest rung of the economic ladder of the community and is composed of salary earners, landless labourers, craftsmen, village servants, herdsmen, petty shopkeepers and unskilled workers. These people strive very hard for the attainment of even the bare necessities of life. Underemployment and instability of employment subject them to hardship and poor standard of living.

As many as 135 families were surveyed which revealed that a household, generally, consisted of four adults and three minors, out of whom one or two members were employed.

The monthly income of a household ranged between Rs. 80 and Rs. 100, the main source of income being service. With this they were unable to make both ends meet. The total expenditure outran the total income. The gap was filled by borrowing.

While the monthly income of a household was between Rs. 80 and Rs. 100, the average monthly expenditure was around Rs. 115.

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STANDARD OF LIVING.

Urban Areas.

Group III.

They had to do without even some of the items of daily consumption like oil. milk and vegetables. Out of the total expenditure 43.18. 5.52. 6.19. 8.16. 7.18 per cent were spent on cereals, oils, vegetables, milk and other items, respectively. To them expenditure on non-food group was a luxury. The survey revealed that only 3.24, 1.70 and 3.70 per cent, respectively, were spent on education. rent and medical aid. Clothing accounted for 14.38 per cent of the total expenditure.

Most of the families surveyed stayed in rented premises. The housing condition was miserable and they were exposed to sun and rain. Their houses were ill-ventilated and highly congested.

Household equipment consisted of brass and aluminium utensils, earthen-ware and scanty bedding sets. Out of the total families surveyed very few had any savings. The total savings amounted to Rs. 14,725 of which Rs. 4,025 and Rs. 10,700 were in cash and in paper securities, respectively. Their debt was to the tune of Rs. 57,110. Almost every family was in debt, drawn mainly for the purpose of meeting household needs. Most of the families had no costly possessions such as clothes, watches, cycles, etc. or gold and silver ornaments.

Before the commencement of the free education scheme for economically backward class students, very few people could afford to educate their children. Children above ten years of age were employed in gainful employment in order to assist the lone earning member.

This scheme of free education has helped considerably in raising the educational standard of this class. The number of graduates and double graduates from this class is gradually on the increase. The scheme has not only helped in raising the educational status of this class but has also helped to improve its economic condition and social prestige as well.

Rural Areas.

Group I.

This group consists of big landlords who possess vast area of land cultivated either by themselves or with hired labour. Ten representative families were surveyed. Generally, a household consisted of three adults and three minors. However, most of them employed domestic servants who were considered as their family members.

The annual income accrued mainly from agricultural products. It ranged from Rs. 3,000 and above. In exceptional cases, supplementary income from business, poultry, dairy, etc. was derived.

Unlike the higher income group in urban areas, the consumption pattern of this group was simple. In fact, people from this group had not to buy most of the items in the food group as they were produced on their own land. Moreover, consumption pattern of this group was marked by the absence of luxurious items like costly furniture, different varieties of clothes, well equipped residence, motor cars, motor cycles, etc.

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Economic Trends.

STANDARD OF LIVING.

Rural Areas.

Group I.

As mentioned above, for foodgrains, milk, fuel, and vegetables, most of the farmers depended upon their own farms and cattle. However, their monthly expenditure was allotted to different items as follows; cereals Rs. 37.35; vegetables Rs. 1.14, lighting Rs. 3.14, oils Rs. 3.35, domestic Rs. 6.36, milk Rs. 8.42; the rest was spent on other non-food items such as entertainment, education, religion, rent, clothing, etc.

The household equipment of the families surveyed composed of brass and copper utensils, and bedding consisted of rugs, chaddars, mattresses and pillows.

Almost all families had gold and silver ornaments, costly clothing, *viz.*, saris, *paithanis, etc.*

As compared to their income, their requirements were limited which enabled them to save. Out of ten families surveyed five families had savings worth Rs. 13,060 representing actual cash and paper securities valued at Rs. 1,060 and Rs. 12,000, respectively.

In respect of literacy, every family had one or two educated persons. A few had sent their wards to distant places in the country for education.

Group II.

Medium agriculturists, traders and teachers in villages, tenant cultivators and artisans constituted the middle income group in rural areas. Their annual income ranged between Rs. 1,200 and Rs. 3,000. Though the main source of income was land, in many cases it was supplemented by subsidiary income from business, trade, service, etc. Out of 19 families surveyed, ten had subsidiary income. Fourteen households possessed land of their own cultivated by themselves.

The consumption pattern was the same as that of the first group, with a slightly less percentage of expenditure on some of the items of daily requirements. Half of the total expenditure was on food group, the percentage being 26.60, 6.60, 3.89, 6.32, 4.87 on cereals, oils, vegetables, milk and other items, respectively. Education and entertainment accounted for 10.18 and 7.17 per cent, respectively. The rest was allotted to other items in non-food group, *viz.*, rent, clothing, religion, etc.

Being mainly agriculturists, the households found themselves partially self-sufficient in respect of foodgrains.

This group seemed to be more conscious about the importance of education and hence had a high percentage of literacy. The families in this group spent, the survey revealed, 10.5 per cent of their monthly income on education. Their expenditure on entertainment was also high as compared to the other two groups in rural area.

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Rural Areas.

Group II.

After making necessary allowances for their daily requirements, a fraction of income was saved. Of the families surveyed four had savings in cash to the tune of Rs. 2,300 and eight families had invested Rs. 2,650 in National Savings Certificates and prize bonds. Seven families had incurred debt of Rs. 15,500 mainly for the purpose of investment in land and business.

Group III.

This group includes poor peasants, village servants, herdsmen, artisans and landless labourers. The total annual income of a family in this group from all sources ranged between Rs. 500 and Rs. 1,200.

Out of 124 families surveyed very few had an annual income of Rs. 1,200. Low paid employment, meagre employment opportunities, insecurity of employment and the presence of under-employment had their impact on the income of the people from this class. The land they possessed was too small to be called an economic holding. The income from land was too meagre even for an average subsistence level.

The average number of members in the family of this group was six including two minors. On an average there were two earners in each family. In addition to the daily wage they earned, they possessed land measuring about two acres.

Their earnings were insufficient to meet their daily requirements. High prices and scarcity of articles of daily consumption further increased their difficulties.

There is no set pattern of consumption of this group. Almost 75 per cent of their monthly expenditure was on cereals, vegetables, oil and milk, the rest being on rent, clothes, etc. In the absence of sufficient income, they were compelled to forego certain necessities.

Of the 124 families surveyed only ten families saved a part of their income. Their savings were Rs. 5,400, (in cash and in paper securities). The number of families which incurred debt was seventy-six, and the total debt amounted to Rs. 63,675. Apart from some exceptional cases, no family possessed any gold or silver ornaments and other costly items like furniture, radio-sets and cots. The household equipment consisted of earthenwares, a few aluminium, brass and copper utensils.

To them, expenditure on entertainment or costly clothes was a luxury and it was incurred on very rare occasions.

Very few families had educated members and the level of literacy was very low. Government, with its free education schemes has come forward to help this class to get education and it is expected that the educational standard of this class would improve in the future.

It is difficult to draw definite conclusions from the foregoing analysis. It can, however, be indicated, with the help of the above analysis, that the pattern of income and expenditure of

CHAPTER 9. — Economic Trends. — STANDARD OF LIVING.

the community as a whole has undergone a rapid and drastic change in recent years. In fact, it is constantly being affected by the social, economic and political forces as well as by technical advance and emergence of new inventions in the field of science.

Nation-wide programme of economic development undertaken by our government is aimed to raise the per capita income and living standard of the common man. The various economic activities in the field of agriculture, industry, trade and commerce, transport, etc. and inauguration of community development programme for rural development and the lead taken by the government in promoting social welfare, both through statutory measures and through liberal grants to voluntary agencies, have undoubtedly helped in raising the living standards of the people.

The programme for economic development has created new employment opportunities thereby increasing the money income of the people. A rise in money income naturally encouraged people to shift from low standards to higher ones. Rare items of consumption became daily items of use.

Moreover, spread of education has brought about a total change in the outlook of the people. New ideas of life are making their headway which has certainly been reflected in their manners, customs and the way of living.

As stated above, it is very difficult to say whether people were better off or worse off in the past than what they are today. However, it cannot be denied that there has been a positive change in the pattern of income and expenditure of the people in Sangli district. Items like motor-cycles, cycles, radios, furniture which were to be seen rarely have become articles of daily use. Advent of electricity, which was a luxury once, has transformed the map of rural life. Cultivation of land with modern methods of production has considerably helped to increase money income. Sangli district has made a break-through in industrial development opportunities. Nearness of the Koyna project has widened the scope of economic development of the district. All this points to a relative change in the concept of the standard of living.

SECTION II—ECONOMIC PROSPECTS

ECONOMIC PROSPECTS. — Introduction.

This section of the chapter is devoted to the discussion of economic resources of the district and the prospects of their future development. However, it is to be noted here that there cannot be any regional or inter-regional or district planning. Any such planning has to be considered in a national perspective. This section examines to what extent the district can contribute towards national development under a planned economy.

Economic development of any region is determined by natural as well as extraneous factors. Natural resources like fertile

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land, abundant water-supply, minerals, man power, rich forests, are the prerequisites of the process of development. However, these are to be exploited with the application of external factors such as capital, machinery and skilled labour, improved techniques of production, transport facilities, etc. All these factors of production, both natural and extraneous, must be planned in such a way as to get the optimum results from their combination.

Agriculture.

Agriculture has been the most important economic activity in Sangli district. Nearly 80 per cent of the working population is engaged in agriculture. This means that eight out of every ten persons are engaged in the cultivation of land.

In the past, apathy towards modern ways of production and meagre financial resources prevented the cultivator from having recourse to the new mode of cultivation, thereby affecting the production adversely. A countrywide programme of planned economic development with the help of different agencies to assist it through direct legislation and liberal grants to the voluntary organizations devoted solely for that purpose and by setting up institutional framework to carry on the message of development to the bottom did show some signs of improvement in all aspects of economy, especially in the field of agriculture.

Sangli district is endowed with ample natural resources with efficient man power to exploit it to the fullest. The land is very fertile situated as it is on the banks of the river Krishna. Moreover, it is well served with irrigation facilities having a net work of canals and wells. The nearness to the Koyna hydro-electric project makes the availability of cheap electric supply possible.

The crop pattern and structure of agrarian economy of the district has remained more or less the same over the years. However, cultivation of cash crops like sugarcane and groundnut has improved considerably the economic conditions of agriculturists. The cultivation of sugarcane has been on the increase. Jowar and Bajra are the two main crops which constitute 58.83 per cent of the gross cropped area. Pulses and groundnut constitute 11 per cent each of the total cropped area.

Agricultural production has gone up since the adoption of planning. However, more could be achieved by following intensive cultivation accompanied by an efficient use of the improved techniques of production. The total production increased by 7.8 per cent during the first plan period. The average annual food production during the second plan was 40.5 per cent over that of 1950-51. There is little scope for extensive cultivation as 75 per cent of the total geographical area is already under cultivation.

In the presence of recurring droughts combined with irregular rainfall and pests, an assured water-supply through a well-developed system of irrigation is required. Sangli district has

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made a remarkable progress so far in this direction. The irrigated area increased from 78.000 acres in 1950-51 to 91,000 acres in 1959-60. The number of oil engines and electric pumps used for irrigation has increased from 1,232 in 1950-51 to 4,496 in 1961. The Third Plan Schemes included construction of 3,000 new wells, installation of 1,500 pumping sets and new minor irrigation works which will irrigate an additional 9,835 acreage of land.

In addition, farmers are provided with improved seeds and modern agricultural implements through a net-work of co-operative institutions which will go a long way in increasing the agricultural production and ameliorating the economic conditions of the farmers as well.

Co-operation along with the community development programme has made headway in the search of all-round economic, social and cultural advancement of the community. Almost all the fields of activity have been covered by these agencies.

The expansion of the co-operative movement in Sangli district is remarkable. There are 511 credit societies, a Central Co-operative Bank with its 735 individual members and 650 societies, one processing society, a co-operative joint farming society, 11 collective farming societies, a co-operative lift irrigation society, and a co-operative sugar factory in Sangli district.

Co-operation has brought about an institutional frame-work consisting of different co-operative societies and service co-operatives which may bring a new economic life to the people.

Despite legislative measures and indirect encouragement, the scheme of prevention of sub-division and fragmentation and of consolidation of holdings has met with little success.

Industry

Industrialization is the foundation of the modern economic growth. Sangli district had made its beginning in the process of industrial development as early as 1910, when an engineering concern at Kirloskarwadi was established. Further progress was retarded by the discriminatory policy of the then British regime and the two World Wars, which made the availability of raw material almost impossible.

After Independence a new era of planned economic development was started through the implementation of five year plans, in which much stress was laid on industrial development by starting new industries in the public sector and by giving generous assistance to such genuine entrepreneurs who would come forward to start new industries. Efforts are being made both by the State and by private entrepreneurs to lift the country from the clutches of the vicious circle of poverty.

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Industry.

At present, there are 30 large-scale industrial units working in the district with 50 or more workers and using power. The biggest of them is the Kirloskar Engineering Works which employs 1,700 workers. In the district there are in all 46,634 workers engaged in manufacturing industry.

The Government is very keen to develop a net-work of small-scale industry and renders help to those who show initiative and undertake the building up of new small industries.

Technical as well as financial help is rendered. The Small Industries Service Institute, Bombay, provides technical assistance. National Small Industries Corporation at the centre, the State Finance Corporation, and the Maharashtra Industrial Development Corporation at the State level provide necessary financial assistance to small scale industries.

There are about 51 registered small scale industries manufacturing bricks, tobacco products, pharmaceuticals, spare parts of engines, etc. In 1961, the total number of registered factories was 85 employing 5,127 workers.

An industrial estate has been established at Sangli for the development of both large and small scale industries. Another industrial estate is being set up at Miraj.

The Industries Department has started Peripatetic Industrial Training Schools for imparting training in different industrial occupations to artisans in the district.

The Master Plan prepared by the Industries Department in 1960 had envisaged the following development in the industries field:—

(1) Expansion of spinning mills;

(2) Surgical cotton;

(3) Solvent extraction of oilseeds/cake;

(4) Hydraulic lime;

(5) Nicotine sulphate.

Prices.

The study of price trends becomes important as it affects not only the living standards of the people, but also the general economic pattern of a country. The modern economic theory of development is essentially a price oriented theory. The general price level is affected by various factors such as supply of and demand for goods; currency circulation, portion of gold reserves, rise in population, volume of production, imports and exports and the conditions of distribution.

A review of the price trends for a period of the last 100 years is given below. Information about prices for the period before 1840 is not available. Yearly price details, which are little more

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than estimates, are available for the forty-three years ending 1882. The details* are as follows:—

TABLE No. 1

GRAIN AVAILABLE IN POUNDS FOR THE RUPEE: 1840—82

First Period

Produce (1)	1840 (2)	1841 (3)	1842 (4)	1843 (5)	1844 (6)	1845 (7)	1846 (8)	1847 (9)	1848 (10)	1849 (11)
Indian Millet..	58	58	93	77	61	65	44	45	61	63
Wheat ..	64	64	67	61	60	48	48	37	35	38
Rice .	15	34	49	49	50	32	40	46	45	38

Second Period

Produce (1)	1850 (2)	1851 (3)	1852 (4)	1853 (5)	1854 (6)	1855 (7)	1856 (8)
Indian Millet..	85	74	74	74	74	70	81
Wheat ..	39	61	61	61	71	59	59
Rice ..	36	31	31	31	31	31	31

Third Period

Produce (1)	1857 (2)	1858 (3)	1859 (4)	1860 (5)	1861 (6)	1862 (7)	1863 (8)	1864 (9)	1865 (10)
Indian Millet..	57	60	66	62	62	62	62	67	66
Wheat ..	53	53	53	53	53	53	51	51	51
Rice ..	34	37	37	37	42	43	40	40	40

Fourth Period

Produce (1)	1866 (2)	1867 (3)	1868 (4)	1869 (5)	1870 (6)
Indian Millet..	57	53	53	66	53
Wheat ..	53	53	53	48	42
Rice .	40	43	43	43	43

* Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency, Vol. XIX, Satara (1885), pp. 191-92.

TABLE No. 1—*contd.*

Fifth Period

Produce	1871	1872	1873	1874	1875	1876	1877	1878	1879	1880
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
Indian Millet..	30	25	26	20	22	19	30	21	17	23
Wheat ..	26	24	28	19	19	19	15	17	11	18
Rice ..	19	17	17	17	18	17	17	18	16	15

Sixth Period

Produce	1881	1882
(1)	(2)	(3)
Indian Millet..	49	51
Wheat ..	26	24
Rice ..	21	22

The forty-three years between 1840 and 1882 have been divided into six periods. Prices of only three commodities are given. These are of Indian Millet. Wheat and Rice.

During these forty-three years ending 1882, the rupee price of Indian Millet which is the staple grain of the district varied from seventeen pounds in 1879 to ninety-three in 1842 and averaged fifty-four pounds. Except in 1842 when the price was ninety-three pounds, and in 1846 and 1847 when the prices were forty-four and forty-five, respectively, in the first period of ten years ending 1849, the price varied from seventy-seven in 1843 to fifty-eight in 1840 and 1841 and averaged sixty-two pounds. In the second period of seven years ending 1856, the prices varied from eighty-five in 1850 to seventy in 1855 and averaged seventy-six pounds. In the third period of nine years ending 1865, the price varied from sixty-seven in 1864 to fifty-seven in 1857 and averaged sixty-three pounds. In the fourth period of five years ending 1870, the price varied from sixty-six in 1869 to fifty-three in 1867 and averaged fifty-six pounds. In the fifth period of ten years ending 1880, the price varied from thirty in 1871 to seventeen in 1879 and averaged twenty-four pounds. And in the sixth period of two years the prices were forty-nine pounds for 1881 and fifty-one for 1882*.

The following table shows the prices of some important commodities that prevailed in the old Satara district. The table also reflects conditions in some talukas of Sangli district which then formed part of the old Satara district.

* Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency, Vol. XIX, Satara (1885), pp. 190-91.

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TABLE NO. 2

PRICES IN 1922-23*

Taluka	Prices in pounds per Rupee					
	Jowari	Bajari	Rice	Tur Dal	Jowari Kadbi	Dry grass
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Satara	20	18	9	11	41	80
Koregaon	21	21	12	11	83	..
Wai	19	17	8	10	24	61
Khandala P.	18	16	9	8	..	..
Medha (Javli)	20	18	11	10	56	240
Malcolmpeth P.	17	11	9	9	27	67
Patan	20	..	10	9	46	35
Karad	22	19	11	9	50	..
Shirala P.	24	..	10	9	68	91
Dahiwadi	21	19	9	..	..	..
Vaduj	20	19	9	9	21	..
Vita	23	19	10	10	..	..
Tasgaon	23	20	12	10	56	..
Average of the non-head-quarters towns	21	18	10	8	49	99

The above table shows a marked rise in the prices of almost all the commodities. This can be attributed to the first World War and the inflationary trends that followed.

If 1924 is taken as the base year in which whole sale prices of all commodities are conceived Rs. 100, following table shows the index of prices of different commodities in the years 1931, 1941 and 1947. which were prevailing in Bombay State:—

TABLE NO. 3

INDEX OF PRICES OF DIFFERENT COMMODITIES IN 1931, 1941 AND 1947 IN SANGLI DISTRICT

Year	Jowar	Bajri	Wheat	Rice	Tur dal	Gram	Sugar	Cotton
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
1924 ..	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1931 ..	32	32	52	57	113	75	50	37
1941 ..	47	57	86	70	89	108	31	48
1947 ..	198	172	201	157	315	473	177	..

* Statistical Atlas of Bombay Presidency, 1925, p. 114.

The great depression which occurred at the end of the twenties and which lasted up to the half of thirties hit agricultural prices adversely and prices showed a precarious fall especially in the years between 1929 and 1932. Thereafter prices showed a general tendency to stabilise at the 1932 level. During and after the war prices showed rising trends.

The steepest rise registered during the years 1942-43 was due to cessation of imports from Burma and other eastern countries. Thereafter the free play of economic and other influencing factors came to an end and the prices began to be governed by the policy of Government.

Index numbers of wholesale prices of some important commodities as they prevailed in the years shown in the following table point as to how rapidly prices have been rising*: —

TABLE NO. 4

INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES OF SOME IMPORTANT COMMODITIES IN SANGLI DISTRICT.

[Base year 1952-53]

Year (1)	Rice (2)	Wheat (3)	Jowar (4)	Gram (5)	Cotton raw (6)	Ground-nut (7)
1960-61 ..	108	90	122	87	112	146
1961-62 ..	105	91	112	83	109	155
1962-63 ..	111	90	130	89	113	140
1963-64 ..	125	99	116	100	119	144
1964-65 ..	134	130	189	158	126	186
December 1965	147	139	198	152	132	226

The following tables show the retail prices of some of the important food articles at three important towns in Sangli district in 1961-62.

The prices of cereals have risen continuously. In the first quarter of 1962, prices of all cereals have, more or less, shown rising trends.

Despite few variations in some months, prices of pulses were more or less constant, variation being negligible. Prices of groundnut and vanaspati have shown a downward trend in the first quarter of the year 1962.

* Source : Reserve Bank of India Bulletin.

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TABLE No. 5

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF SELECTED COMMODITIES AT TASGAON IN 1961-62.

[Prices in Rs. and Paise]

Serial No.	Commodities	Variety	Unit	April 1961	May 1961	June 1961	July 1961	August 1961	September 1961	October 1961	November 1961	December 1961	January 1962	February 1962	March 1962
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)
1	Rice	Fine .	kg					..		0·93	0·93	1·01	1·04	1·07	0·96
		Medium ..	Do.	.	..	0·66	0·80	.	.	0·87	0·80	0·80	0·80	0·87	0·87
2	Wheat .. .	Fine .	Do.	.		0·54	0·63	.	.	0·66	0·60	0·60	0·60	0·60	0·63
		Medium ..	Do.	.		0·43	0·40	.	.	0·43	0·39	0·45	0·47	0·47	0·47
3	Jowar	(Kar.) ..	Do.	.	..	0·43	0·40	..	.	0·43	0·39	0·45	0·47	0·47	0·47
4	Bajri	..	Do.	..	..	..		..	..	0·40	..	0·40	0·40	0·41	0·40
5	Gram (whole) ..	..	Do.	..	..	0·48	0·54	..	.	0·47	0·54	0·54	0·57	0·54	0·50
6	Gram dal ..	..	Do.	..	..	0·54	0·60	..	..	0·57	0·60	0·60	0·61	0·60	0·60
7	Tur dal	..	Do.	..	..	..	0·66	..	..	0·66	0·60	0·66	0·66	0·66	0·66
8	Groundnut ..	..	Do.	..	..	..	2·38	..	..	2·68	2·27	2·08	2·08	2·08	2·14
9	Vanaspati ..	..	Do.	..	..	3·22	3·22	..	..	3·22	3·35	3·22	3·22	3·22	3·22
10	Sugar	..	Do.	..	..	1·18	1·18	..	..	1·18	1·18	1·18	1·19	1·18	1·20

TABLE No. 6

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF SELECTED COMMODITIES AT JATH IN 1961-62.

[Prices in Rs. and Paise]

Serial No. (1)	Commodities (2)	Variety (3)	Unit (4)	April 1961 (5)	May 1961 (6)	June 1961 (7)	July 1961 (8)	August 1961 (9)	September 1961 (10)	October 1961 (11)	November 1961 (12)	December 1961 (13)	January 1962 (14)	February 1962 (15)	March 1962 (16)
1	Rice	Fine ..	kg.	0·93	0·93	0·93	0·92	0·92	0·87	0·87	0·87	0·87	Not available.		
		Medium ..	Do.	0·74	0·74	0·74	0·73	0·68	0·66	0·66	0·66	0,66	,,	,,	,,
2	Wheat	Fine ..	Do.	0·60	0·60	0·60	0·60	6·55	0·50	0·50	0·50	0·50	,,	,,	,,
		Medium ..	Do.	0·57	0·57	0·57	0·57	0 50	0·47	0·47	0·47	0·47	,,	,,	,,
3	Jowar	..	Do.	0·42	0·42	0·36	0·36	0·36	0·36	0·44	0·44	0·44	,,	,,	,,
4	Bajri	..	Do.	0·40	0·40	0·36	0·36	0·43	0·44	0·44	0·40	0·44	,,	,,	,,
5	Gram (whole) ..	..	Do.	0·47	0·48	0·53	0 53	0 50	0·51	0·51	0·50	0·50	,,	,,	,,
6	Gram dal ..	..	Do.	0·61	0·63	0·57	0·57	0·57	0·54	0·54	0·54	0·54	,,	,,	,,
7	Tur dal	..	Do.	0·33	0·36	0·50	0·60	0·57	0·60	0·60	0·60	0·60	,,	,,	,,
8	Vanaspati ..	..	Do.	3·28	3·28	3·28	3·28	3·25	3·22	3·22	3·22	3·22	,,	,,	,,
9	Groundnut ..	..	Do.	2·22	2·23	2·30	2·30	2·28	2·14	2·00	1·97	1·97	,,	,,	,,
10	Sugar		Do.	1·18	1·18	1·18	1·18	1·18	1·18	1·13	1·13	N.A.	,,	,,	,,

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TABLE No. 7

RETAIL PRICES OF SELECTED COMMODITIES AT SANGLI CENTRE IN 1961-62.

[Prices in Rs. and Paise]

Serial No. (1)	Commodities (2)	Variety (3)	Unit (4)	April 1961 (5)	May 1961 (6)	June 1961 (7)	July 1961 (8)	August 1961 (9)	September 1961 (10)	October 1961 (11)	November 1961 (12)	December 1961 (13)	January 1962 (14)	February 1962 (15)	March 1962 (16)
1	Rice ..	Fine ..	kg.	0·93	0·96	N.A.	0·96	..	0·80	0·93	0·93	0·99	1·00	0·96	0·95
		Medium ..	Do.	0·70	0·70	0·80	0·80	..	0·66	0·80	0·80	0·77	0·75	0·72	0·70
2	Wheat ..	Fine ..	Do.	0·70	0·70	0·66	0·66	..	0·60	0·60	0·66	0·67	0·70	0·77	0·75
		Medium ..	Do.	0·62	0·60	0·60	0·60	..	0·60	..	0·60	0·60	0·65	0·70	0·70
3	Jowar ..	(Kar.) ..	Do.	0·47	0·43	0·43	0·47	..	0·40	0·45	0·49	0·49	0·50	0·47	..
4	Bajri ..	..	Do.	0·40	0·43	..	..	..	0·40	0·40	..	..	..	..	..
5	Gram (whole) ..	..	Do.	0·56	0·54	0·54	0·60	..	0·60	0·55	0·55	..	..	0·55	0·50
6	Gram dal ..	..	Do.	0·66	0·66	0·54	0·60	..	0·66	0·60	0·58	0·60	0·60	0·62	0·50
7	Tur dal ..	..	Do.	0·62	0·50	0·43	0·40	..	0·40	0·45	0·80	0·80	0·80	0·72	0·75
8	Groundnut ..	..	Do.	2·39	2·41	2·41	2·41	..	2·27	2·00	2·03	1·94	2·00	2·00	2·12
9	Vanaspati ..	..	Do.	3·26	3·35	3·22	3·22	..	3·22	3·00	3·00	3·00	3·00	3·18	3·06
10	Sugar ..	..	Do.	1·16	1·19	1·11	1·11	..	1·16	1·15	1·15	1·14	1·14	1·11	1·12

This section describes changes in the pattern of the wages of agricultural labourers over a period of more than 100 years.

In 1853, wages were two-thirds of the wages in 1880, the daily wage rates in 1883 being 8½ annas for a carpenter, 5⅓ annas for a brick-layer and for unskilled women 1½ anna to 2 annas. Labourers were paid either in kind or in cash.

The following table shows wages before and after the World War I:—

TABLE NO. 8

PRE-WAR NORMAL WAGES

No.	Taluka	Prices per diem per man		
		Skilled labour	Ordinary labour	Field labour
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
		Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
1	Islampur	0 10 1	0 4 10	0 4 10
2	Shirala P.	0 8 8	0 3 10	0 3 4
3	Dahiwadi	0 9 2	0 4 10	0 3 2
4	Vita	0 7 11	0 3 9	0 3 9
5	Tasgaon	0 11 2	0 4 6	0 4 1

TABLE NO. 9

WAGES IN 1922-23

Serial No.	Taluka	Wages per diem per man		
		Skilled labour	Ordinary labour	Field labour
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
		Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
1	Islampur	1 0 0	0 8 0	0 6 0
2	Shirala	1 0 0	0 8 0	0 8 0
3	Dahiwadi	1 0 0	0 12 0	0 6 0
4	Vita	1 0 0	0 6 0	0 7 0
5	Tasgaon	1 0 8	0 6 4	0 6 8

A study of these tables reveals that there has been a marked increase in the daily wages.

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Wage Trends.

During the period following the second World War, wages have shown an upward tendency. Formerly, wages were paid in both cash and kind to village arisans. The payment of wages in kind now does not find favour with the employers in many cases. The practice has disappeared altogether due to rising prices of foodgrains.

The following table shows the wage rates that prevailed in Shirala mahal in 1950, 1955 and 1961, and at Islampur in 1950, 1956 and 1961:—

TABLE No. 10

DAILY WAGE RATES IN RUPEES

	Shirala Mahal			Islampur (taluka Walwa)		
	1950	1955	1961	1950	1956	1961
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
(A) Skilled Labour—						
(1) Carpenter ..	2·00	3·00	3·00	3·00	3·00	3·00
(2) Blacksmith ..	Blacksmith and mochis were not available on daily wages in this mahal.			3·00	3·00	3·00
Mochies ..				3·00	..	2·00
(B) Field Labour—						
(1) Men	0·75	1·00	1·00 to 1·25	1·50	0·75	1·37 to 1·50
(2) Women .	0·50	0·75	0·75 to 1·00	1·25	0·50	0·75 to 1·00
(3) Children	Children do not work on daily wages.			1·00	0·37	0·50 to 0·75
(C) Other Agricultural Labour—						
(1) Men	0·75	1·00	1·00 to 1·25	1·25	1·00	2·00
(2) Women .	0·50	0·75	0·75 to 1·00	1·00	0·75	1·00 to 1·25
(3) Children ..	Children do not work on daily wages.			1·00	0·50	0·62
(D) Herdsmen—						
(1) Men	Herdsmen were not available on daily wages. The charges are Re. 1 per cattle per month for taking cattle for feeding. This work was mainly done by the children.			1·00	1·00	1·50
(2) Women ..				..	0·75	0·62
(3) Children ..				1·00	0·75	0·50

CHAPTER 10—GENERAL ADMINISTRATION

CHAPTER 10.

General Administration.

INTRODUCTION.

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION IN THE STATE, in the last century, consisted mostly of providing security to person and property and raising the revenue necessary for the purpose. The only important departments of the State were Police, Jails and Judiciary representing security and Land Revenue, Excise, Registration and Stamps representing revenue. The activities of the Public Works Department, the only other branch of sufficient importance, were confined to the construction and maintenance of buildings required by the Government departments apart from a few roads and irrigation works. With the spread of Western education and the growth of political consciousness in the country coupled with the gradual association of a few Indians with some aspects of the work of Government, the demand arose for the expansion of Government activities into what were termed as "nation-building" activities. With the first popular Government established in 1937, attempts were not only made to expand the 'nation-building' departments but also to create what has now come to be generally described as 'a Welfare State' by the new Government. With the attainment of Independence, an all-out effort is being made to establish a Welfare State as rapidly as possible and to build up a socially directed economy.

In the description that follows in this chapter and in chapters 11-17, the departments of the Central and the State Governments operating in the district of Sangli have been grouped as under:—

Chapter 10—General Administration.

Chapter 11—Revenue Administration.

Chapter 12—Law, Order and Justice.

Chapter 13—Other Departments.

Chapter 14—Local Self-Government.

Chapter 15—Education and Culture.

Chapter 16—Medical and Public Health Services.

Chapter 17—Other Social Services.

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS.

The present Sangli district was composed of Sangli, Miraj and Jath which were Princely States and Walwa, Tasgaon and Khanapur talukas and Shirala mahal of the old Satara district and was known as the South Satara district. It was renamed as

CHAPTER 10.

General Administration.

Sangli district from October 21, 1960[1]. The district covers an area of 8591.289 km^2 (3317.1 sq. miles) and has according to the Census of 1961, a population of 12,30,716. For administrative convenience, the district is at present divided into five talukas and three mahals[2] grouped into two prants.

The administrative divisions at present stand as shown below:—

Names of Prants	Names of talukas or mahals
Walwa ..	Khanapur taluka.
	Shirala mahal.
	Walwa taluka.
	Atpadi mahal.
Miraj ..	Tasgaon taluka.
	Jath taluka.
	Miraj taluka.
	Kavthe Mahankal mahal.

DIVISIONAL COMMISSIONER.

The Government have created the posts of the Divisional Commissioners in place of the Divisional Officers from March 3, 1958 with the passing of the Bombay Commissioners Act, 1957. The posts of Commissioners had existed in the old Bombay State but were abolished in 1950. The same were again revived after the reorganisation of the States because of the increase in the area of the State. The State of Maharashtra has now been divided into four divisions with headquarters at Bombay, Poona, Nagpur and Aurangabad and each division has been placed in charge of a Divisional Commissioner. The jurisdiction of the Divisional Commissioner, Poona Division, extends besides Sangli district, over Poona, Sholapur, Kolhapur, Ahmednagar and Satara districts.

Subject to the general or special order of the State Government, the Commissioner is the chief controlling authority in all matters connected with the land revenue. The District Collectors are subordinate to the Divisional Commissioner. Of the powers delegated to the Divisional Commissioner and conferred upon him by law in land revenue matters, the following are important:—

(1) to revise the limits of the sub-divisions of the districts,

(2) to pass final orders regarding extinction of rights of public and individual in or over any public road, lane or path not required for use of the public,

(3) to sanction reduction of assessment consequent upon reclassification of agricultural lands up to Rs. 200 per annum when classification operation is confined to a single village and Rs. 400 per annum when it extends to more than one village in a taluka,

(4) to decide disputes regarding rights to lands between municipalities and Government,

(5) to sanction remission in cases of total loss of crop due to local calamities up to Rs. 1,000,

[1] Government Notification, R. D., No. TLC-3860-44243-C of 18th October 1960.
[2] All the mahals have been converted into talukas recently.

(6) to fix priority for scarcity relief works, and

(7) to sell lands for building sites without auction if the value of such land does not exceed Rs. 1,000 in rural areas and Rs. 5,000 in urban areas.

DIVISIONAL COMMISSIONER.

The Commissioner supervises the working of the revenue offices, exercises executive and administrative powers delegated to him by Government or conferred upon him by law from time to time, undertakes general inspection of offices of all the departments within his division, inspects local bodies, co-ordinates and supervises the activities of all divisional heads of departments with particular reference to planning and development and integrates the administrative set-up in the incoming areas. He is also the co-ordinating authority as far as the Zilla Parishads in his division are concerned and heads the selection body for the class III non-technical employees of the Zilla Parishads.

COLLECTOR

The Collector is the pivot on which the district administration turns. Not only is he at the head of the Revenue Department in the district, but in so far as the needs and exigencies of the district administration are concerned, he is expected to superintend the working of the offices of other departments.

Revenue.

The Collector is most intimately connected with the operation of the Bombay Land Revenue Code (V of 1879). He is the custodian of Government property in land (including trees and water) wherever situated, and at the same time the guardian of the interests of members of the public in land in so far as the interests of the Government in land have been conceded to them. All land, wherever situated, whether applied to agricultural or other purposes, is liable to payment of land revenue, except in so far as it may be expressly exempted by a special contract (vide Section 45, Land Revenue Code). Such land revenue is of three kinds, *viz.*, agricultural assessment, non-agricultural assessment and miscellaneous (e.g. rates for the use of water in respect of which no rate is leviable under the Bombay Irrigation Act (VII of 1879)).

The Collector's duties are in respect of (1) fixation; (2) collection and (3) accounting of all such land revenue. The assessment is fixed on each piece of land roughly in proportion to its productivity. Talukawise assessment is revised after every thirty years. A revision survey and settlement is carried out by the Land Records department before a revision is made and the Collector is expected to review the settlement reports with great care. The assessment is usually guaranteed against increase for a period of thirty years. Government may, however, grant suspensions and remissions in bad seasons as a matter of grace and the determination of the amount of these suspensions and remissions is in the hands of the Collector. As regards non-agricultural assessment, section 48 of the Code provides for alteration of the agricultural assessment when agriculturally assessed land is used for a non-agricultural purpose. In the same way, unassessed land used for a non-agricultural purpose is

assessed to non-agricultural rates. All this has to be done by the Collector according to the provisions of the rules under the Land Revenue Code. Miscellaneous land revenue also has to be fixed by the Collector according to the circumstances of each case.

The collection of land revenue rests with the Collector, who has to see that the revenue due is recovered punctually and with the minimum of coercion, and that the collections are properly credited and accounted for.

Land Revenue Collections.

The statistics of land revenue collections in Sangli district for the year 1961 62 are as under:—

Number of villages—

Khalsa—519

Inam—14.

Gross fixed revenue, including non-agricultural assessment and all other dues—21,14,078.29.

Deduct.

Assessment assigned for special and public purposes including forests—5,200.94.

Net alienations of total inams—1,19,032.98.

Assessment of cultivable land—

Unoccupied -1,18,593.97.

Free or specially reduced—903 36.

Remaining fixed revenue for collection—

Agricultural:

Government occupied land including specially reduced—

Alienated lands	45,054·16
Building and other non-agricultural assessment.	13,747·68
Fluctuating Miscellaneous Revenue ...	3,96,534·41
Local Fund	4,01,856·04
Demand	24,60,521·33
Remissions	1,06,230·05
Suspensions	48 613·10
Collections	23,66,728·67
Unauthorised balance	1,03,136·05

The Collector is also responsible for the collection of fees and taxes under various other Acts, such as the Bombay Irrigation Act (VII of 1879), the Indian Forest Act (XVI of 1927), the Indian Stamp Act (II of 1899), the Indian Court-fees Act (VII of 1870), the Bombay Tolls on Roads and Bridges Act (III of 1875), the Bombay Entertainment Duty Act (I of 1923) and the Bombay Prohibition Act (XXV of 1949). There are also Acts which contain a provision that dues under them are recoverable

Revenue.

Land Revenue Collection.

as arrears of land revenue, and the Collector and his establishment have to undertake the recovery of such dues when necessary.

In regard to the administration of the Forest Act, the ultimate responsibility for the administration of the department, so far as his district is concerned lies with him and the Divisional Forest Officer is his assistant for the purpose of that administration, except in matters relating to the technique of forestry.

As regards the Prohibition Act, the Collector has to issue personal permits to liquor and drug addicts and recover the assessment fees from shops permitted to sell liquor and drugs. The Collector is the agency through which the Director of Prohibition and Excise arranges to have the policy of the department carried out at the district level.

The administration of the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act (LXVII of 1948) rests with the Collector. He is also an appellate authority to hear appeals under the various sections of the Act.

Inams.

All inams and watans except the *devasthan* inams have been abolished under the Bombay Paragana and Kulkarni Watans Abolition Act, 1950 (applied to this district from 1-5-1951); the Bombay Saranjams, Jagirs and other Inams of Political Nature Resumption Rules, 1952 (1-11-1952); the Bombay Personal Inams Abolition Act, 1952 (1-8-1953); the Bombay Service Inams (Useful to Community) Abolition Act, 1953 (1-4-1954); the Bombay Merged Territories and Areas (Jagirs) Abolition Act, 1953 (1-8-1954); the Bombay Merged Territories Miscellaneous Alienations Act, 1955 (1-8-1955); the Bombay Village Watans Abolition Act, 1958 (1-2-1959) and the Maharashtra Revenue Patels (Abolition of Office) Act, 1962 (1-1-1963).

Public Utility.

The Agriculturists' Loans Act (XII of 1884) and the Land Improvement Loans Act (XIX of 1883) regulated the grant of loans to agriculturists at cheap rates for financing their operations. The Collector has to estimate the needs of his district in accordance with the policy of Government and, in the event of a bad season, to make further demands for as much money as can be usefully loaned for the purpose of tiding over the scarcity. He has to take necessary steps for the most advantageous distribution of the amount placed at his disposal and to see that the advances made are recovered at the proper time.

The Collector of Sangli is the Court of Wards for the estates taken over under the Bombay Court of Wards Act (I of 1905).

Accounts.

The Collector is in charge of the treasury and is personally responsible to the Government for its general administration, the due accounting of all moneys received and disbursed, the correctness of the treasury returns and the safe custody of the valuables which it contains. In matters of accounts and audit,

CHAPTER 10. General Administration. COLLECTOR.

the Collector (with the Treasury Officer under him) is responsible to the Accountant General, whose instructions he has to obey. He does not, however, take part in the daily routine of treasury business. For that work his delegate and representative is the Treasury Officer.

Quasi-judicial functions in revenue matters.

Among the quasi-judicial functions of the Collector on the revenue side, apart from hearing appeals from the Prant Officers under the Land Revenue Code and various other Acts, may be mentioned: (i) The revisional powers exercised under Section 23 of the Bombay Mamlatdars' Courts Act (II of 1906) in respect of Mamlatdars' orders under the Act (this power is delegated to an Assistant or Deputy Collector); (ii) Appellate powers under sections 53 and 67 of the Bombay Irrigation Act (VII of 1879), in regard to fixation of betterment charges on lands under the irrigable command of a canal; (iii) The work which the Collector does in connection with the execution of Civil Courts' decrees; and (iv) Proceedings and awards under section 11 of the Land Acquisition Act (I of 1894).

Officers of Other Departments.

The officers of other departments stationed at the district headquarters can be divided into two groups:—

(A) (i) the District and Sessions Judge;
(ii) the District Superintendent of Police and
(iii) the Civil Surgeon.

(B) (i) the Superintendent of Prohibition and Excise;
(ii) the District Agricultural Officer; and
(iii) the Inspector of Sanitation and Vaccination.

(A) (i) The District Judge has a separate and independent sphere of work, and as Sessions Judge he exercises appellate powers over the decisions of all Judicial Magistrates in the district. The Bombay Separation of Judicial and Executive Functions Act (XXIII of 1951) has separated the magistracy into "judicial magistrates" who are subordinates of the Sessions Judge, and "Executive Magistrate" who are subordinates of the District Magistrate. Before the enactment of this legislation, the Sessions Judge used to exercise appellate powers over the decisions, in criminal cases, of the District Magistrate and other First Class Magistrates but the new legislation has withdrawn from the executive magistrates practically all powers of trial of criminal cases, and only in certain cases the Sessions Judge has the power to hear appeals over the decisions of executive magistrates.

(ii) The District Superintendent of Police and the police force of the district are under the control of the District Magistrate.

(iii) The Civil Surgeon has also a separate and independent sphere of his own, but must place his professional and technical advice and assistance at the disposal of the general district administration whenever required.

(B) The Collector is the subordinate of the Director of Prohibition and Excise in all matters pertaining to the Bombay Prohibition Act (XXV of 1949). The Superintendent of Prohibition and Excise is his subordinate, except in technical matters.

Officers of Other Departments.

The other officers in this group are also of subordinate status, their services in their particular sphere can be requisitioned by the Collector, either directly in case of necessity, if the matter is urgent or through their official superiors.

The following are some of the officers of the district who have more or less intimate contact with the Collector, in matters relating to their departments and have to carry out his general instructions:—

(i) the District Industries Officer;

(ii) the Backward Class Welfare Officer;

(iii) the Medical Officers at the various taluka centres;

(iv) the District Health Officer;

(v) the Compost Development Officer (through the Rural Development Board).

(vi) the Divisional Veterinary Officer;

(vii) the District Inspector of Land Records;

(viii) the District Officer, Industrial Co-operatives and Village Industries;

(ix) the District Co-operative Officer; and

(x) the Marketing Inspector.

The Regional Transport Officer is the other officer whose work in the district has to be conducted in consultation with the Collector.

District Magistrate.

The Collector's duties as District Magistrate are mostly executive. He is at the head of all other executive magistrates in the district. As District Magistrate, besides the ordinary powers of a Sub-Divisional Magistrate, he has the following powers:—

(i) Power to hear appeals from orders requiring security for keeping the peace or good behaviour (Section 406, Criminal Procedure Code);

(ii) Power to call for records from any subordinate executive magistrate (Section 435);

(iii) Power to issue commission for examination of witnesses (Sections 503 and 506);

(iv) Power to hear appeals from or revise orders passed by subordinate executive magistrates under Section 514, procedure on forfeiture of bond (Section 515). When authorised by the State Government, the District Magistrate may invest any magistrate subordinate to him with:—

(i) power to make orders prohibiting repetitions of nuisances (Section 143).

(ii) power to make orders calculated to prevent apprehended danger to public peace (Section 144); and

(iii) power to hold inquests (Section 174).

District Magistrate.

Besides having control over the police in the district, the District Magistrate has extensive powers under the Criminal Procedure Code, the Bombay Police Act (XXII of 1951), and other Acts for the maintenance of law and order. It is his duty to examine the records of police stations and out-posts, in order that he may gain an insight into the state of crime within their limits and satisfy himself that cases are being promptly disposed of.

In his executive capacity, the District Magistrate is concerned with the issue of licences and permits under the Arms Act (II of 1878), the Petroleum Act (VIII of 1899), the Explosives Act (IV of 1884), and the Poisons Act (I of 1904). He has also to supervise the general administration of these Acts, to inspect factories and magazines, and to perform various other supervisory functions.

District Registrar.

As District Registrar the Collector controls the administration of the Registration Department within his district.

Sanitation and Public Health

The duties of the Collector in the matter of sanitation are: (a) to see that ordinary and special sanitary measures are initiated in cases of outbreaks of epidemic diseases; (b) to watch and stimulate the efficiency of the sanitary administration of municipalities and other sanitary authorities: and (c) to advise and encourage local bodies to improve the permanent sanitary conditions of the areas under them so far as the funds at their disposal will allow. He can freely requisition the advice and technical assistance of the District Health Officer.

Local Self-Government.

In all cases in which the power of passing orders in matters affecting local bodies rests with the Commissioner or the Government, either the proposals are made by the Collector or they are received by the Commissioner with the Collector's remarks. There are, however, many matters in which the Collector can pass final orders. The control sections of the various Acts governing local bodies give authority to the Collector as the chief representative of the Government to supervise the action of local bodies and to give advice.

Zilla Parishad.

The Collector is the Chairman of the District Selection Committee and acts as the representative of the Divisional Commissioner in respect of the Zilla Parishad.

District Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Board.

The Collector is the Chairman of the District Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Board. The duties of the Board are (a) to promote and maintain a feeling of goodwill between the civil and military classes; (b) generally to look after the family interests of serving soldiers, etc.; and (c) to implement in detail the work of the State Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Board.

The Board at Sangli has under its control a rest-house for ex-servicemen and a Military Boys Hostel. A maternity ward has also been constructed for the benefit of ex-servicemen's families at the civil hospital, Sangli.

Collector's Office.

The Collector's Office at Sangli is divided into many branches, each of which is usually in charge of a person in the grade of Mamlatdar.

The Home Branch deals with all magisterial work, the administration of the Bombay Entertainments Duty Act (I of 1923), the Arms Act (XI of 1878), and political work connected with the maintenance of law and order. The English Branch deals with the Zilla Parishad, municipalities and village panchayats, passports, political work, prohibition and excise, public works, petroleum, medical affairs, fairs, cattle pounds, telephones, stamp duty, Backward Class Board meetings, etc. The Chitnis Branch deals with matters like land revenue, land grants, *watans*, cash allowances, *tagai*, establishment, encroachments, dues of co-operative societies, tenancy, execution of decrees of civil courts (*darkhast*), audit of village accounts (*jamabandi audit*), and inspection of taluka and public offices. The District Registration Office is one of the branches and is in charge of the Headquarter Sub-Registrar. The Treasury Branch is in charge of the Treasury Officer. There are separate branches dealing with each one of the following: (i) the Court of Wards: (ii) the District Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Board; and (iii) the District Development Board. There are branches dealing with Elections, Refugees and Evacuees, but these are purely temporary.

PRANT OFFICERS.

Under the Collector are the Prant Officers who are either Assistant Collectors (Indian Administrative Service Officers) or District Deputy Collectors. The two prants in the district have each a separate Prant Officer in charge. The Prant Officers in charge of Miraj and Walwa Divisions have their headquarters at Miraj and Sangli respectively.

The Prant Officers form the connecting link between the Mamlatdar and the Collector. A Prant Officer exercises all the powers conferred on the Collector by the Land Revenue Code and by any other law in force or by executive orders, in regard to the talukas and mahals in his charge, except such powers as the Collector may specially reserve to himself. His principal functions in regard to his sub-divisions are—

Revenue.

(1) inspection and supervision of the work of Mamlatdars, Circle Officers, Circle Inspectors and village officers including the inspection of taluka *Kacheries*; (2) appointments, transfers, etc., of stipendiary village officers and the appointment etc., of hereditary village officers; (3) safeguarding Government property by constant inspection, dealing with encroachments, breaches of the conditions on which land is held on restricted tenure, etc.; (4) grant of waste land and disposal of

CHAPTER 10. General Administration. PRANT OFFICERS. Revenue.

alluvial land; (5) levy of non-agricultural assessment and passing orders regarding miscellaneous land revenue; (6) hearing of appeals against Mamlatdars' decisions in assistance cases and watching the execution of assistance decrees: (7) crop and boundary mark inspection and the checking of *annewaris* i.e., estimates of crop yields for purposes of suspensions and remissions of revenue, and the record-of-rights; (8) supervision over the realisation of Government revenue: (9) successions to *watans* and other properties; and (10) land acquisition.

Magisterial.

The Prant Officer is the Sub-Divisional Magistrate of his charge and as such exercises the powers specified in Part IV of Schedule III of the Criminal Procedure Code. These include the ordinary powers of a Taluka Magistrate and also the power to maintain peace (Section 107); power to require security for good behaviour under Sections 108, 109 and 110; power to make orders calculated to prevent apprehended danger to public peace (Section 144): power to record statements and confessions during a police investigation (Section 164): and power to hold inquests (Section 174). The Sub-divisional Magistrate, when empowered by the State Government, has also power to call for and forward to the District Magistrate records and proceedings of subordinate executive magistrates.

As Sub-divisional Magistrate the Prant Officer is required to inspect police Sub-Inspectors' office from much the same point of view from which the District Magistrate inspects them.

Other duties.

Among the other duties of the Prant Officer may be mentioned: (1) keeping the Collector informed of what is going on in his sub-division not only from the revenue point of view but also in matters connected with law and order; (2) bringing to the notice of the Collector slackness or laxity if any of the Mamlatdars, Circle Officers and Circle Inspectors, etc., in his subdivision: (3) undertaking forest settlement work; and (4) granting of *tagai* loans.

Each Prant Officer is assisted in his work by a *Shirastedar* and about five clerks.

MAMLATDARS AND MAHALKARIS.

The Mamlatdar is the officer in executive charge of a taluka and the Mahalkari has the executive charge of a mahal. There is a sub-treasury in every taluka or mahal, and there is practically no difference of kind between the functions and duties of a Mamlatdar and those of a Mahalkari. Each taluka or mahal has on an average two or three head clerks (*aval karkuns*), 15 or 18 clerks, 60 talathis, two Circle Officers and two Circle Inspectors. The duties of Mamlatdars and Mahalkaris fall under various heads.*

*Whatever is said of the Mamlatdar in the following paragraphs applies also to the Mahalkari.

The Mamlatdar's revenue duties are to prepare the ground work for the Prant Officer and the Collector to pass their orders upon. When these orders are passed he has to execute them.

In regard to the annual demand of land revenue he has to get ready all the statements necessary for what is called the making of the *jamabandi* of the talukas. The *jamabandi* is partly an audit of the previous year's accounts and partly an inspection of the accounts of the current year. The demand for fixed agricultural revenue is settled, but there are remissions and suspensions to be calculated upon that fixed demand in lean years. Remissions and suspensions are given in accordance with the crop *annewaris* with the determination of which the Mamlatdar is most intimately concerned. To the demand of fixed revenue is added the amount of non-agricultural assessment and of fluctuating land revenue, such as that arising from the sale of trees, stone or sand, fixed when individuals apply for them.

The brunt of the work of collection also lies on the Mamlatdar. He can issue notices under Section 152, Land Revenue Code, inflict fines for delay in payment under section 148, Land Revenue Code. distrain and sell moveable property, and issue notices of forfeiture of the land, though he has to take the Prant Officer's or the Collector's orders for actual forfeiture.

He has to collect, in addition to land revenue, *tagai* loans, *pot hissa* measurement fees. boundary marks advances and irrigation revenue, the dues of other departments like Sales Tax, Income Tax and Forest when there is default in their payment, at the request of these departments to recover the dues as an arrear of land revenue.

It is also his duty to see that there is no breach of any of the conditions under which *inams* are held and, whenever there is any breach, to bring it to the notice of the Collector through the Prant Officer.

Applications for grant of *tagai* are generally received by the Mamlatdar, who has to get enquiries made by the Circle Officer and Circle Inspector, see the sites for the improvement of which *tagai* is sought, ascertain whether the security offered is sufficient, determine what instalments for repayment would be suitable, etc. He can grant *tagai* up to Rs. 1,000 and Rs. 200 under the Land Improvement Loans Act and Agricultural Loans Act respectively. A Mamlatdar who has been specially empowered can grant *tagai* up to Rs. 2,500 and Rs. 500 under the Land Improvement Loans Act and the Agricultural Loans Act respectively. In other cases he has to obtain orders from the Prant Officer or the Collector.

The Mamlatdar's duties regarding *tagai* do not end with the giving of it; he has to see that it is properly utilised, inspect the works undertaken by its means, watch the repayment, and make

CHAPTER 10. General Administration. MAMLATDARS AND MAHALKARIS.

recoveries from defaulters. The Mamlatdar is primarily responsible for the administration of the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act (LXVII of 1948) within the area of his charge. His powers under the Act have been delegated to the *aval karkuns.*

Quasi-Judicial.

The quasi-judicial duties which the Mamlatdar performs include: (i) inquiries and orders under the Mamlatdars' Courts Act (II of 1906); (ii) the execution of civil court decrees; (iii) the disposal of applications from superior holders for assistance in recovering land revenue from inferior holders; and (iv) enquiry in respect of disputed cases in connection with the record-of-rights in each village. The last two are summary enquiries under the Land Revenue Code.

Magisterial.

Every Mamlatdar is *ex-officio* the Taluka Magistrate of his taluka. As Taluka Magistrate, First Class, he has the following other powers under the Criminal Procedure Code:—

(i) Power to command unlawful assembly to disperse (Section 127),

(ii) Power to use civil force to disperse unlawful assembly (Section 128),

(iii) Power to require military force to be used to disperse unlawful assembly (Section 130).

(iv) Power to apply to District Magistrate to issue commission for examination of witness (Section 506),

(v) Power to recover penalty on forfeited bond (Section 514) and to require fresh security (Section 514-A),

(vi) Power to make order as to disposal of property regarding which an offence is committed (Section 517),

(vii) Power to sell property of a suspected character (Section 525).

If authorised by the State Government or the District Magistrate, the Taluka Magistrate may exercise the following among other powers: (1) power to make orders prohibiting repetitions of nuisances (Section 143); (2) power to make orders calculated to prevent apprehended danger to public peace (Section 144); and (3) power to hold inquests (Section 174).

The Mamlatdar is also in charge of the management of the sub-jail. He has to keep the District Magistrate and the Sub-divisional Magistrate informed of all criminal activities in his charge, taking steps incidental to the maintenance of law and order in his charge. In a case of serious disturbance of public peace the Mamlatdar carries great responsibility, for, as the senior executive magistrate on the spot, he must issue orders and carry on till his superiors arrive.

Treasury and Accounts.

As a Sub-Treasury Officer, the Mamlatdar is in charge of the taluka treasury which is called "sub-treasury" in relation to the district treasury. Into this treasury all money due to Government in the taluka—land revenue, forest, public works and

CHAPTER 10. General Administration. MAMLATDARS AND MAHALKARIS. Treasury and Accounts.

other receipts—are paid and from it nearly the whole of the money expended for Government in the taluka is secured. The sub-post offices in the taluka receive their cash for postal transactions from the sub-treasury and remit their receipts to it. The Sub-Treasury Officer pays departmental officers on cash orders or demand drafts issued by Treasury Officers and on cheques, except where certain departments are allowed to present bills direct at the sub-treasury. The Sub-Treasury Officer also issues Government and bank drafts.

When the Mamlatdar is away from his headquarters, the Treasury *Awal Karkun* is *ex-officio* in charge of the sub-treasury and of the accounts business, and he is held personally responsible for it. During the Mamlatdar's presence he is authorised to sign receipts irrespective of the amount.

The taluka sub-treasury is also the local depot for stamps—general, court-fee and postal—of all denominations and for the stock of opium held there for sale to permit-holders. A few sub-treasuries have been specially authorized to discontinue the maintenance of a stock of postal stamps. In such cases, the sub-post office at the taluka headquarters is supplied with postal stamps from the post offices at the district headquarters.

A currency chest is maintained at almost all sub-treasuries in which surplus cash balances are deposited. From it withdrawals are made to replenish sub-treasury balances whenever necessary. Sub-treasuries are treated as agencies of the Reserve Bank for remittance of funds.

The Mamlatdar has to verify the balance in the sub-treasury, including those of stamps and opium, on the closing day of each month, which for the convenience of the district treasury is fixed on the 25th of all months, except February when it is the 23rd, and March when it is the 31st, the latter being the closing day of the financial year. The report of the verification, together with the monthly returns of receipts under different heads, has to be submitted by the Mamlatdar to the Treasury Officer at Sangli. The sub-treasuries are annually inspected by either the Collector or the Prant Officer.

Other Administrative Duties.

The Mamlatdar's main duty lies towards the Collector and the Prant Officer whom he must implicitly obey and keep constantly informed of all political happenings, outbreaks of epidemics and other matters affecting the well-being of the people, such as serious maladministration in any department or any hitch in the working of the administrative machine, due, for instance, to subordinate officers of different departments being at loggerheads.

He must help officers of all departments in the execution of their respective duties in so far as his taluka is concerned. In fact, he is at the service of all of them and is also the connecting link between the officers and the public whom they are all meant to serve. This is particularly so in departments wnich have not

CHAPTER 10.

General Administration.

MAMLATDARS AND MAHALKARIS.

Other Administrative Duties.

a local taluka officer of their own. The Mamlatdar is also responsible for the cattle census, which really comes under the purview of the Agriculture department. The Co-operative department expects the Mamlatdar to propagate co-operative principles in his taluka. He has to execute the awards and decrees of societies in the taluka, unless there is a special officer appointed for the purpose. He has to take prompt action in respect of epidemics and to render to the Assistant Director of Public Health and his assistants every help in preventing outbreaks of epidemic diseases and suppressing them whenever they occur.

Under executive orders the Mamlatdar has to provide the Military departments with the necessary provisions and conveyances when any detachment marches through the taluka.

The Mamlatdar's position in relation to other taluka officers, e.g., the Sub-Inspector of Police, the Sub-Registrar, the Range Forest Officer, the Sub-Assistant Surgeon and the prohibition officials is not well defined. They are not subordinate to him except perhaps in a very limited sense but are grouped round him and are expected to help and co-operate with him in their spheres of activity.

Though the Mamlatdar is not expected to work directly for local self government bodies, he is usually the principal source of the Collector's information about them. He is responsible for the administration of his taluka just as the Collector is responsible for the district.

In relation to the public well-being, the Mamlatdar is the local representative of Government and performs generally the same functions as the Collector, but on a lower plane.

CIRCLE OFFICERS AND CIRCLE INSPECTORS.

In order to assist the Mamlatdar in exercising proper supervision over the village officers and village servants and to make local enquiries of every kind promptly, Circle Officers in the grade of *Awal Karkuns* and Circle Inspectors in the grade of *Karkuns* are appointed. The Circle Officer certifies entries in the record of rights and thus relieves the Mamlatdar of a good deal of routine work. There are from 30 to 50 villages in charge of a Circle Officer or a Circle Inspector. These officers form a link between the Mamlatdar and the village officers. There are generally one Circle Officer and four Circle Inspectors in each taluka. Their duties relate to—

(i) boundary mark inspection, inspection of crops including their *annewari*, the inspection of *tagai* works and detection of illegal occupation of land ;

(ii) preparation of agricultural and other statistical returns, *viz.*, crop statistics, cattle census, and water-supply ;

(iii) supervision of the village officers in the preparation and maintenance of the record of rights, the mutation register and the tenancy register ;

(iv) examination of rayats' receipt books and supervision of the revenue collection; and

(v) such other miscellaneous work as the Mamlatdar may from time to time entrust them with, e.g., enquiry into any alleged encroachments.

CHAPTER 10. General Administration. CIRCLE OFFICERS AND CIRCLE INSPECTORS.

PATIL.

The Maharashtra Revenue Patils (Abolition of Office) Act. 1962 has been made applicable to this district from January 1. 1963. According to the provisions of this Act all the posts of hereditary revenue and police patils have been abolished from that date and stipendiary police patils have been appointed (under Section 5 of the B.V.P. Act, 1867 as per instructions contained in Government letter, H.D., No. BVP-3462-II-VI, dated 18th May 1962 read with Government Circular, R.D., No. WTN-1062-L, dated 6th August 1962). As the Prant Officers are competent to appoint stipendiary police patils (under Section 5 of the B.V. Police Act, 1867), orders of appointment of stipendiary police patils under the said Section have been issued appointing the patils who were doing duties of Police Patil as on December 31, 1962 and they are functioning as such from 1st January 1963.

The patil is the principal official in a village. The duties of the Patil fall under the following heads; (i) revenue; (ii) quasi-magisterial; and (iii) administrative. His revenue duties are—

(i) to collect the revenue due to Government from the rayats in conjunction with the talathi (village accountant);

(ii) to detect encroachments on Government land and protect trees and other property of Government;

(iii) to execute the orders received from the taluka office in connection with recovery of revenue and other matters;

(iv) to get the talathi to maintain properly the record of rights and village accounts and to get him to submit the periodical returns punctually; and

(v) to render assistance to high officials visiting the village for inspection work and other purposes.

There are quasi-magisterial functions appertaining to the police patil. In a majority of villages the same person is both the police and the revenue patil. The police patil is responsible for the writing up of the birth and death register and for the care of unclaimed property found in the village. Several duties have been imposed on the police patil by the Bombay Village Police Act (VIII of 1867). The village police is under his charge and he has authority to require all village servants to aid him in performing the duties entrusted to him. He has to utilise the village establishment in a manner so as to afford the utmost possible security against robbery, breach of the peace and acts injurious to the public and to the village community. It is the

CHAPTER 10. General Administration. PATIL.

police patil's duty to furnish the taluka magistrate with any returns of information called for and keep him constantly informed as to the state of crime and the health and general condition of the community in his village. He has to afford police officers every assistance in his power when called upon by them for assistance. Further, he has to obey and execute all orders and warrants issued to him by an executive magistrate or a police officer: collect and communicate to the district police intelligence affecting the public peace; prevent within the limits of his village the commission of offences and public nuisances; and detect and bring offenders therein to justice. If a crime is committed within the limits of the village and the perpetrator of the crime escapes or is not known, he has to forward immediate information to the police officer in charge of the police station within the limits of which his village is situated, and himself proceed to investigate the matter and obtain all procurable evidence and forward it to the police officer. If any unnatural or sudden death occurs, or any corpse is found, the police patil is bound to assemble an inquest, to be composed of two or more intelligent persons belonging to the village or neighbourhood. The report of the inquest has then to be forwarded by him to the police officer. He has also to apprehend any person in the village who he has reason to believe has committed any serious offence and send him, together with all articles to be useful in evidence, to the police officer.

As regards the patil's administrative duties, he is expected to look to the sanitation and public health of the village. He must also report promptly the outbreak of any epidemic disease to the taluka office. He is expected to render every assistance to travellers, provided payment is duly tendered

TALATHI.

The office of the talathi (village accountant) used generally to be held by hereditary *kulkarnis*. From 1914 onwards hereditary *kulkarnis* were allowed, subject to certain conditions, to commute the right of service attached to the *kulkarni watan*. In the Sangli district almost all the *kulkarni watans* were commuted and stipendiary talathis were substituted. With effect from 1st May 1951 all *kulkarni watans* along with the right of service were abolished by the Bombay Paragana and *Kulkarni Watans* Abolition Act (LX of 1950). If the villages are small one talathi is appointed for two or more villages, which are called his charge or *saza*. The talathi receives a monthly salary. His main duties are: (i) to maintain the village accounts relating to demand, collection and arrears of land revenue, etc., the record of rights and all other village forms prescribed by the Government; (ii) to inspect crops and boundary marks and prepare agricultural statistics and levy lists, and (iii) to help the patil in the collection of land revenue, write the combined day and receipt books and other accounts and do other clerical work, including that of the police patil when the latter is illiterate.

TALATHI.

Their services were transferred to the Zilla Parishad and they were termed as the Assistant Gram Sevaks. However, their services have again recently been transferred to the State Government.

In addition to the village officers mentioned above, there are some stipendiary *Kotwals*.

KOTWALS.

According to the provisions of the Bombay Inferior Village Watans Abolition Act, 1958, all the posts of hereditary inferior servants have been abolished from February 1, 1959 and stipendiary *Kotwals* have been appointed on the time-scale.

The number of *Kotwals* for each village is dependent on the population of the village. One *Kotwal* is appointed if the village has population of 500, two are appointed if the population is between 501 and 2,000 and three *Kotwals* are appointed for those villages the population of which exceeds 2,000.

However, at the following villages, 28 posts of *Kotwals* have been sanctioned extra in view of the size, importance, etc., of these villages—

Islampur (2) : Ashta (3) ; Kasegaon (1) ; Takari (1) ; Sangli (3) ; Miraj (3) ; Kavthe-Mahankal (1) : Malgaon (1) ; Arag (1) : Shirala (1) ; Bhilwadi (1) ; Kundal (1) ; Palus (1) : Tasgaon (2) ; Vita (2) ; Atpadi (1) : Khanapur (1) and Jath (2).

In all, 1,195 posts of *Kotwals* have been sanctioned for this district.

Their recruitment, service conditions and leave, etc., are governed by the rules for the recruitment and employment of *Kotwals*. Their appointment is to be renewed from year to year so long as the holder of the appointment continues to be fit. It can also be terminated on any earlier day, if found necessary without notice and without assigning any reason.

The rules for the recruitment and employment of *Kotwals* do not prescribe literacy as an essential qualification for appointment of *Kotwal*, but where literate candidates are available they are given preference.

The services of the *Kotwals* were transferred to Zilla Parishad and Panchayat Samitis with the formation of the Zilla Parishad. Subsequently, however, the services of the *Kotwals* were again transferred to the Revenue department. These latest Government Orders have been given effect to from December 1, 1963 and the original position prior to 1st April 1963 has been restored therefrom.

CHAPTER 11 — REVENUE ADMINISTRATION

CHAPTER 11.

Revenue Administration.

INTRODUCTION.

WITH THE DAWN OF INDEPENDENCE and the idea of establishing a Welfare State, Government activities and expenditure have increased manifold. It is, therefore, imperative that sources other than land revenue are explored to augment the revenue of the exchequer. Taxes, both Central and State, form the core of Government revenue.

In what follows is described in brief the functioning of those Government departments which are entrusted with the administration of these taxes.

LAND RECORDS DEPARTMENT.

LAND RECORDS. Introduction.

The land revenue system prevalent in Sangli district is *rayatwari* which is based on the complete survey, soil classification and settlement of assessment of every field.

The original survey settlements were introduced in the district between 1857 and 1867, and the first revision settlement between 1887 and 1895. The second revision settlements in force were introduced between 1918 and 1926, in respect of Walva, Shirala, Khanapur, Tasgaon and Jath talukas. In the remaining parts of the district, the first revision settlements are in force. Thus the whole district is overdue for revision settlement.

The whole of the district has been surveyed, classified and settled, except 14 villages (13 *Inam* villages and one *Jagir* village from merged State areas). These 14 villages have been surveyed but not settled. The classification operations of these villages have been completed under Post-War Reconstruction Schemes (No. 77-AO). However, the rates of assessment are not as yet declared.

Survey.

The survey was done by chain and cross-staff in all talukas excepting a few villages, the survey of which has been done by M.T. Method. The unit of area is English acre with its sub-division, the gunthas (121 Sq. Yards, *i.e.*, square formed by one Chain or 11 Yards), 40 gunthas making one acre. The area of each survey number is separately entered in the Land Records under an indicative number and that of a sub-division too is so entered under an indicative number subordinate to that of survey number of which it forms a part.

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Revenue Administration.

LAND RECORDS.

Accurate village maps have been prepared (generally on a scale of 1"=20 chains) for all surveyed villages showing the survey number and their boundary marks and other topographical details such as roads, *nallas*, forests, etc. From these village maps, taluka and district maps were prepared on a scale of 1"=2 miles.

Classification

The main classes of lands recognised were dry-crop, garden and rice lands. Each field was classified with reference to the texture of the soil, its depth and deteriorating factors and extra advantages, if any. This district being trap country, the factor of "General Position" has also been taken into consideration. In case of dry-crop lands, *e.g.*, gradual additions are made to the soil classification of lands possessing advantages of drainage on account of situation of the lands. In the case of rice and garden lands in addition to the soil factors, the water factor was also classified in consideration of the duration of the water-supply and kind of crop grown. The classification value was expressed in terms of annas, 16 annas representing the standard. The soil classification as originally confirmed or made during the revision survey is final and no general reclassification of soil is made again at further revision settlement (Section 106 of Land Revenue Code). The holder is, however, entitled to reclassification and reduction of assessment of his lands on account of physical deterioration of the soil. All improvements made are exempt from taxation for a period of 30 years immediately preceding the year in which the settlement is introduced. Thereafter they are liable to taxation.

Settlement and Assessment.

Prior to 1939 the settlement procedure was prescribed by an administrative order of Government under the Land Revenue Code. Under the Land Revenue Code Amendment Act of 1939 (Bombay XX of 1939), the procedure has been brought on the statute book. The various provisions governing the settlement procedure are contained in chapter VIII-A of the Land Revenue Code and Chapter III-A of the Land Revenue Rules. The prescribed procedure is, in brief as under:

> "Settlement" is defined as the result of operations conducted in a taluka or a part of taluka in order to determine the land revenue assessment [Sec. 117-C (1)].

The Settlement Officer (appointed by the State Government under section 18 of Land Revenue Code) examines fully the past revenue history of the area with a view to assessing the general effect of the existing incidence of assessment on the economic condition of the area and with reference to the various statistical data, and by careful enquiry in villages, he collects information in respect of the following matters in the manner prescribed in the Land Revenue Rule 19-A (2).

1. physical configuration ;
2. climate and rainfall ;
3. markets ;
4. communications ;

5. standard of husbandry;
6. population and supply of labour;
7. agricultural resources;
8. variations in the area of occupied and cultivated lands during the last 30 years;
9. wages;
10. prices;
11. yield of the principal crops;
12. ordinary expenses of cultivating such crops (including the wages of the cultivators for his labours in cultivating the land);
13. rental value of the land used for the purpose of agriculture;
14. sale of lands used for agriculture.

On making a settlement, he divides the area to be settled into groups which are so formed as to be homogeneous in respect of the factors enumerated above and bear the same standard rates [Land Revenue Code, section 117-G (1) and (2)]. He then fixes the standard rates for each class of lands (*viz*., dry-crop, rice, and garden). "Standard rate" is the normal assessment per acre on the land of respective class of 16 annas classification value [section 117-G (5) and (6)].

These rates are so fixed that the aggregate assessment on the occupied lands in any group shall not exceed 35 per cent of the average of the rental values of such lands for a period of 5 years immediately preceding the year in which the settlement is directed [Land Revenue Code, section 117-G (1)]. The enhancement of the assessment is limited to 25 per cent of the aggregate existing assessment in respect of a taluka or a group and 50 per cent in respect of a village or an individual holding (section 117-F).

Improvements made at the cost of the holders are exempted from the enhancement of the assessment for a period of 30 years, immediately preceding the date on which the settlement expires (section 117-H).

The Settlement Officer formulates his proposals of settlement on the above basis in the form of a comprehensive report which contains—

(i) the various statistical data collected by him in the prescribed forms,

(ii) the reasons for his proposals, and

(iii) a statement showing the effect of his proposals as compared to that of previous settlement in force (Land Revenue Rule 19-B (1).

CHAPTER 11. Revenue Administration. LAND RECORDS. Settlement and Assessment.

He submits the report to the Collector (section 117-I). The settlement report is published in the regional language in each village in the prescribed manner, together with a notice stating the existing standard rates for each class of land and the extent of increase or decrease proposed by the Settlement Officer. The period of three months from the date of notice is allowed for any objections to the settlement proposals (section 117-J).

Provision is made for referring settlement proposals to the Revenue Tribunal by the State Government at the instance of aggrieved persons (who have to deposit the prescribed amount of cost) within two months from the date of the notice (section 117-KK).

After taking into account the objections, the Collector forwards the Settlement Officer's report to the State Government through the Settlement Commissioner and Director of Land Records with his remarks (section 117-K).

The settlement report together with the objections and recommendations of the State Revenue Tribunal is placed on the table of each chamber of the Legislature and the proposals can be discussed in the Legislature (section 117-C).

Thereupon, the State Government passes final orders on the settlement report (section 117-L), and after a notice of the settlement has been given in the prescribed manner, the settlement is deemed to have been introduced (section 117-O).

The assessment to be imposed on each holding in the case of an original settlement is determined by the application of the standard rates to the classification value of the lands through the medium of the *Jantris* (table of calculation) prepared by the Superintendent of Survey, and the Settlement Commissioner and Director of Land Records, and in the case of a Revision Settlement, it is worked out by increasing or decreasing the old assessment in the same proportion as there is increase or decrease in the new standard rate over the old ones (Land Revenue Rules 19-H).

A settlement ordinarily remains in force for 30 years (section 117-E).

If the settlement is declared with reference to price a surcharge can be levied or rebate granted during the currency of the settlement, according to the variation in prices (Land Revenue Code 117-M and Land Revenue Rules 19-K).

Additional water advantages accrued at the cost of Government can be assessed during the currency of the settlement (section 117-Q).

Record-of-Rights.

The Record-of-Rights Law (contained in Chapter X of the Land Revenue Code) was enacted in 1913. The Record-of-Rights has been introduced in all the villages of this district (according to

Record-of-Rights.

section 135-B (1) of the Land Revenue Code). The Record-of-Rights contains the following particulars:—

(*a*) the names of all persons who are holders, occupants, owners or mortgagees of the land or assignees of the rents or revenue thereof;

(*b*) the nature and extent of the respective interests of such persons and the conditions or liabilities attached thereto;

(*c*) the rent or revenue (if any) payable by or to any of such persons;

(*d*) the names of tenants and mode of cultivation; and

(*e*) such other particulars as the State Government may prescribe under the rules made in this behalf.

The State Government has now applied the law to all tenancies also under section 135-B (2). Any acquisition of a right in land is to be reported to the village officers by the person acquiring it, unless it is registered (Land Revenue Code—section 135-C). Failure to carry out this obligation is liable to fine by way of late fees.

Functions.

The Land Records department was created in 1884 when the revision survey and settlement operations were nearing completion and old "Survey Settlement Department" was brought to a close. The department is an adjunct to the Revenue department. Its functions are:—

(i) to maintain all survey, classification and settlement records up-to-date by keeping very careful notes of all changes and for this purpose to carry out operations preliminary to incorporation of the changes in the survey records;

(ii) to collect and provide statistics necessary for the sound administration of all matters concerned with the land;

(iii) to help to reduce, simplify and cheapen litigations in revenue and civil courts by providing reliable survey and other records;

(iv) to supervise the preparation and maintenance of Record-of-Rights and of the periodical inspection of the boundary marks;

(v) to conduct periodical revision settlement operations;

(vi) to organise and carry out village site and city surveys on an extensive scale and arrange for their proper maintenance;

(vii) to undertake special surveys for private individuals or for public bodies, surveys in connection with railways, municipal and Zilla Parishad projects, town planning schemes and survey for defence and other Government departments;

(viii) to maintain up-to-date all village maps, and to reprint them and arrange for their distribution to various departments for administrative purposes and for sale to the public; and

(ix) to train the Revenue Officers in survey and settlement matters.

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Revenue Administration.

LAND RECORDS.

District Inspector of Land Records.

The District Inspector of Land Records, Sangli, is the principal officer in charge of the Land Records department in the district. He is a Class II Gazetted Officer (of Mamlatdar's rank) appointed by the Settlement Commissioner and Director of Land Records, and is directly subordinate to the Superintendent of Land Records, Poona Circle, Poona, in all technical matters. He is also subordinate to the Collector of Sangli and has to carry out all administrative orders of the Collector in the matter of survey and records.

The District Inspector of Land Records is assisted by one District Surveyor and eight Cadestral Surveyors and four Maintenance Surveyors with their headquarters at Sangli, Miraj, Tasgaon, Islampur and Ashta and other ministerial staff. The *pot hissa* survey operations are being carried out by the Surveyor Mamlatdar (P.H.S.), Poona, since 1957.

Duties and fuuctions.

Being both a Revenue and a Survey Officer the duties of the District Inspector of Land Records are:—

(*a*) to supervise and take field tests of measurement and classification work done by the District, Cadestral and Maintenance Surveyors;

(*b*) to exercise check over the prompt and proper disposal of all measurement cases and other works done by the survey staff and the District Survey Office establishment by scrutinizing their diaries and monthly statements (*Mahewars*);

(*c*) to take a test of the work of as many circle inspectors and village officers as possible with a view to ensure that they understand their duties in respect of (i) the Record-of-Rights, (ii) the tenancy and crop registers and (iii) the boundary marks repairs work, etc., during his village inspection. The District Inspector sees that Government waste lands are not being unauthorizedly used (his test is meant to be qualitative and not merely quantitative);

(*d*) to be responsible for the maintenance of the theodolite stones in the villages surveyed on minor triangulation method and to arrange for their regular inspection and replacement where necessary;

(*e*) to compile the *huzur* statistics (Agricultural Return No. II and III) with the clerical aid placed at his disposal by the Collector;

(*f*) to maintain the accounts and watch the recovery of the city survey and other dues;

(*g*) to inspect the city survey offices every year and send the inspection memoranda (in triplicate) to the Superintendent of Land Records, who forwards one copy to the Settlement Commissioner and Director of Land Records, and one to the City Survey Officer through the Collector with his own remarks thereon;

(*h*) to arrange in consultation with the Collector concerned for training of the Junior Indian Administrative Service Officers, the District Deputy Collectors, the Mamlatdars and other staff in survey and settlement matters; and

District Inspector of Land Records.

(i) to advise the Revenue Officers in the district in all technical matters concerned. with the maintenance of the survey records and the Record-of-Rights, and to refer all cases of doubt to the Superintendent of Land Records.

District and Cadestral Surveyors.

The staff of the District and Cadestral Surveyors deals with the routine measurement and classification work, whether done for Government (*i.e.*, in land acquisition cases, etc.), or on private applications, civil court decrees, etc. In the case of private work, the prescribed fees are recovered from the parties in advance. The District Surveyor deals with such measurement cases as cannot be entrusted to the Cadestral Surveyor on account of the difficulties, their size, importance and urgency. The staff does the work of effecting necessary changes in the survey records by preparing *kami jasti patraks* during the monsoon.

District Survey Office and the Headquarter Assistant.

The District Survey Office is in charge of the Headquarter Assistant who acts under the orders of the District Inspector of Land Records. The Headquarter Assistant and his staff are responsible for keeping the survey records up-to-date and in proper place. He deals with all correspondence connected with records (under the signature of the District Inspector of Land Records). In urgent circumstances, the Headquarter Assistant disposes of the references under his own signature in the absence of the District Inspector of Land Records, informing the latter of the action taken by him. He recovers and accounts for the fees received for private measurement work, according to the prescribed procedure. He also issues certified extracts from the survey records, and supplies printed maps to the applicants on payment of prescribed charges. The District Survey Office also issues the measurement case to the surveyors for measurement and keeps a watch over their prompt and proper disposal, scrutinises the surveyors' work in the survey office and takes action to get all changes effected in the survey records. In this connection necessary *kami jasti patraks* (with their abstracts) signed by the District Inspector of Land Records and countersigned by the Superintendent of Land Records, Poona and Hissa Form No. XII (after preparing *akarphod patraks*) signed by District Inspector of Land Records, are sent to the revenue officers for correction of the village and taluka accounts, records and maps.

Maintenance Surveyors.

The staff of the Maintenance Surveyors is responsible for the maintenance of the city surveys (these are introduced under section 131 of Land Revenue Code) and the records including the Record-of-Rights and the maps connected therewith and assist the revenue administration of the city survey area. They, therefore, work under the immediate control of the revenue officers in charge of the city survey, but the technical and administrative control of

CHAPTER 11. — Revenue Administration. LAND RECORDS.

the staff lies with the District Inspector of Land Records and the Superintendent of Land Records. Such surveys have been introduced in the following important cities and towns in Sangli district in the years noted against them:—

Maintenance Surveyors.

Name of the City or Town	Year of introduction	Staff in charge of maintenance
1. Sangli ..	1928-29 ..	2 Maintenance Surveyors.
2. Miraj ..	1949 ..	1 Maintenance Surveyor. 1 Clerk.
3. Tasgaon ..	1948 ..	1 Maintenance Surveyor (part-time for 8 months and four months for C. S. work).
4. Ashta ..	1949 ..	*1 Maintenance Surveyor 5 months at Ashta and 7 months at Islampur.
5. Islampur ..	1943 ..	

The cost of the maintenance of the city surveys is usually borne by the Government in respect of all city surveys except that the maintenance of the one post of Additional Maintenance Surveyor is borne by the Ganapati Sansthan, Sangli. No village site survey has been undertaken in the district.

Pot Hissa Surveyors.

The scheme of measurement of *pot hissas* was sanctioned under G.R., R.D., No. S.V.C./755-C, dated 28-12-1956, for a period of two years. The execution of the scheme was entrusted to the Pot Hissa Survey Mamlatdar, Poona. The Survey Mamlatdar is a Gazetted Officer in the cadre of the District Inspector of Land Records appointed by the Settlement Commissioner and Director of Land Records. He works under the control of the Special Superintendent of Land Records, Pot Hissa Survey, Poona. One Nimtandar and 10 Surveyors are at present working in Sangli district.

Circle Inspectors.

The Circle Inspectors are primarily expected to assist the revenue officers in the up-to-date maintenance of the village records and the land records kept at the villages, and assist the revenue administration and are, therefore, under the control of the Collector. They supervise the work of the village officers and their technical work of maintenance of Land Records at the village is supervised by the District Inspector of Land Records.

Post-war Reconstruction Schemes.

The Land Records department is at present entrusted with the execution of the Post-War Reconstruction Scheme No. 74, *i.e.*, Consolidation of Holdings as per the Bombay Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings Act, 1947, as amended in the year 1959.

There are four Assistant Consolidation Officers working in this district with a Consolidation Officer above them, with headquarters at Sangli. The Assistant Consolidation Officers are in the cadre of the District Inspector of Land Records and the Consolidation Officer in the cadre of Prant Officer.

* The post of Maintenance Surveyor, Ashta, is separated as per G. R., R. D., No. EST 3463/10043-C, dated 4th March 1963.

Post-war Reconstruction Schemes.

The Assistant Consolidation Officer is assisted by a Nimtandar, a Circle Inspector and six Consolidation Surveyors and other staff in making up-to-date measurement of sub-divisions, the Record-of-Rights and to prepare a scheme of consolidation. The Consolidation Circle Inspector assists the Assistant Consolidation Officer in the execution of the scheme of consolidation of holdings after confirmation of the scheme by the Settlement Commissioner and Director of Land Records or Government as the case may be. They have started the work in Miraj, Tasgaon, Khanapur and Walwa talukas of the district.

REGISTRATION DEPARTMENT.

REGISTRATION. Functions.

The main functions performed by the Registration department are—

(*a*) registration of documents under the Indian Registration Act (XVI of 1908);

(*b*) registration of marriages under (i) the Bombay Registration of Marriages Act (V of 1954); the Parsee Marriage and Divorce Act (III of 1936); and the Special Marriage Act (XLIII of 1954); and

(*c*) registration of births and deaths under the Births, Deaths and Marriages Act (VI of 1886).

Organisation.

The department is headed by the Inspector-General of Registration who is assisted by a District Registrar for each district who supervises the registration work in the district. The Collector of the district functions as an *ex-officio* District Registrar. Under the District Registrar there are Sub-Registrars. In 1962, there were eight Sub-Registrars in the district with their headquarters at Sangli, Miraj, Tasgaon, Walva-Islampur, Khanapur-Vita, Jath, Ashta and Shirala.

The appointments of the ministerial and other necessary staff at the Sub-Registry Offices are made by the District Registrar. The Sub-Registrars are appointed by the Inspector-General of Registration.

The District Registrar is required to carry out the instructions of the Inspector-General of Registration in all departmental matters. If he has any suggestions to make for the improvement of the registration system, he submits them to the Inspector-General. The District Registrar gives guidance to the Sub-Registrars in their day to day work. He visits the Sub-Registry Offices in his district at least once in every two years, and sends his memoranda of inspection to the Inspector-General. He hears appeals and applications referred to him under sections 72 and 73 of the Indian Registration Act, 1908, against refusals to register documents by the Sub-Registrars under him. Under sections 25 and 34 of the same Act, he is empowered to condone delays in presentation of documents and appearance of executants provided the delay does not exceed four months, and to direct registration of the documents concerned on payment of a fine not exceeding

CHAPTER 11. Revenue Administration. REGISTRATION. Organisation.

ten times the proper registration fee. He is also competent to order refunds in cases of surcharges and to grant full or partial remission of safe custody fees in suitable cases. A will or a codicil can be deposited with him in a sealed cover and it can be got registered at the cost of the party desiring it, after the death of the depositor.

Senior Sub-Registrars are appointed as Inspectors of Registration. Their work is to inspect the work of all the Sub-Registry offices in their charge. The Sangli district falls under the jurisdiction of the Inspector of Registration, Kolhapur Division.

Registration of documents.

Under the Indian Registration Act (XVI of 1908) compulsory registration is required in the case of certain documents and optional registration is provided for certain other documents. The documents which fulfil the prescribed requirements and for which the required stamp duty and the registration fees are paid are registered. A record of such registered documents is kept and extracts of documents affecting immoveable property in respect of which Records-of-Rights is maintained are sent to the officers concerned for making mutations. Certified copies from the preserved records of registered documents are also issued to the parties who apply for them.

In all 15,383 documents were registered in the district during 1962. Of these, 14,902 documents falling under compulsory registration were of the aggregate value of Rs. 1,83,42,057, documents falling under optional registration were 212 and their aggregate value was Rs. 7,43,521, documents relating to moveable property were 151 and 118 were wills.

Fees are levied for registration according to the prescribed scale, but the State Government have exempted fully or partially. levy of registration fees in respect of documents pertaining to societies registered under the Co-operative Societies Act. Certain types of societies such as Urban Co-operative Societies or banks and housing societies enjoy restricted exemptions in respect of documents where the consideration does not exceed the specified limit. All rural co-operative societies enjoy unrestricted exemption*.

Photo copying system.

Out of the eight Sub-Registry Offices in the district, photo copying system has been extended to four offices at Sangli, Miraj, Tasgaon, and Walva-Islampur. In these offices documents presented for registration are copied by means of photography. For this purpose the documents are sent to the Government Photo Registry Office, Poona, where the documents are photographed under the micro-filming process and returned to the Sub-Registrar concerned with a photostat copy thereof. The film negatives are preserved in the Government Photo Registry Office, Poona. In the remaining four offices in the district, the documents are copied by hand.

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* For details please see Government Notification, Co-operation and Rural Development Department, No. CAS. 1061/27508-J, dated 16th August 1961.

REGISTRATION.

Registration of marriages.

All Sub-Registrars in the district are appointed as Registrars of Marriages under the Bombay Registration of Marriages Act, 1954, as well as under the Parsee Marriage and Divorce Act, 1936. Under the Bombay Registration of Marriages Act, 432 memoranda of marriages were registered in 1962. No marriage memorandum under the Parsee Marriage and Divorce Act was received for registration during the same year. The Headquarters Sub-Registrar, Sangli, also functions as Marriage Officer under the Special Marriage Act, 1954. The District Registrar and the Headquarters Sub-Registrar are also Registrars of Births and Deaths under the Births, Deaths and Marriages Act, 1886.

Income and Expenditure.

During 1962 the income of the Registration department in the district was Rs. 1,75,599 and the expenditure Rs. 50,752.

SALES TAX DEPARTMENT.

SALES TAX. Introduction.

Sales Tax is the most important source of revenue to the State as it contributes to the Exchequer much more than any other head of revenue. In 1962-63, it yielded 30.38 crores of rupees.

The Bombay Sales Tax Act (LI of 1959) which governs the levy and collection of sales tax replaced on January 1, 1960 the earlier Act which was in operation till then. Different systems of sales tax were in operation in different component parts of the State under the earlier Acts. Under the Bombay Sales Tax Act, 1959, a system which combined the two point levy in respect of certain goods with a single point levy at the first stage in respect of the same goods and single point levy at the penultimate stage of sale by the licensed dealer to a dealer without a licence, was introduced. For the ordinary registered dealer holding neither authorisation nor licence, recognition or permit and who obtained his requirements on payment of tax to other registered dealers, retail sales tax on sales of certain goods at 1/4 per cent of the turnover of sales of such goods was introduced.

Tax Structure.

The turnover for registration in the case of a manufacturer or importer of goods into the State of Maharashtra for liability to register and pay tax is fixed at Rs. 10,000 while the turnover for other dealers is fixed at Rs. 30,000. A dealer dealing purely in non-taxable goods is not liable to pay tax and is not liable to obtain a certificate of registration.

Besides registration certificate, the Act provides for the issue of other privileged documents, namely, licence, authorisation, recognition and permit. A dealer holding a licence can purchase goods free of general sales tax for resale subject to certain conditions. An authorisation enables a dealer holding it to purchase goods free of both the sales tax and the general sales tax for sale in the course of inter-State trade and commerce or in the course of export subject to prescribed conditions. A recognition enables a manufacturer to purchase free of both the sales tax and the general sales tax certain goods required by him for use in the manufacture of goods for sale and for use in the packing of goods so manufactured. A permit enables a registered dealer who *bona fide* buys

CHAPTER 11. Revenue Administration. SALES TAX. Tax Structure.

for an agreed commission any goods on behalf of a principal mentioned in his books of account, to purchase such goods free of tax under prescribed conditions.

A dealer registered under the Central Sales Tax Act, 1956, but who is not liable to pay tax under section 3 of the Bombay Sales Tax Act, 1959, shall nevertheless be liable to pay tax—

(*a*) on sale of goods in respect of the purchase of which he has furnished a declaration under sub-section (4) of section 8 of the Central Sales Tax Act, 1956, and

(*b*) on sale of goods so purchased have been used. and accordingly, the provisions of sections 7 to 12 shall apply to such sales, as they apply to the sales made by a dealer liable to pay tax under section 3 of the Bombay Sales Tax Act, 1959.

Every dealer who is liable to pay tax under sub-section (1) shall, for the purposes of sections 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 46, 47 and 48 be deemed to be a registered dealer.

The Act contains 5 Schedules, namely:

Schedule A: It enumerates 51 classes of goods which are free from all taxes.

Schedule B: This Schedule is in two parts. It lists declared goods. Part I lists the declared goods which are subjected to sales tax and Part II lists the goods which are subjected to general sales tax. Part I contains 3 classes of goods and Part II, 6 classes of goods.

Schedule C: This Schedule lists 72 classes of goods liable only to sales tax at the first stage of sale.

Schedule D: This Schedule lists 10 classes of goods subjected to general sales tax.

Schedule E: This Schedule lists 21 classes of goods of which the last is a residuary class of classification. These goods are liable both to sales tax and to general sales tax. As mentioned earlier, the ordinary registered dealer is liable to pay retail turnover tax of ¼ per cent on the turnover of goods in this Schedule.

The sale of a large number of goods consisting mostly of articles of consumption of comparatively poorer section of the community is exempted from tax altogether. The rates of tax on sales of goods liable to tax, vary according to the cost of goods, the economic conditions of the section of the population which mainly consumes the goods and other factors such as imposition of duty in some other State on goods like cloth, sugar, etc.

Organisation.

For the purpose of the administration of the Sales Tax Act in Sangli district, one Sales Tax Officer has been appointed with headquarters at Sangli. He has under him 4 Sales Tax Inspectors. The Sales Tax Officer exercises the powers delegated to him under the Bombay Sales Act, 1959. He registers the

SALES TAX. Organisation.

dealers liable to pay tax and grants documents such as licence, authorisation, recognition and permit to those who are eligible for the same. The Sales Tax Officer receives periodical returns from the dealers showing the turnover during the period and the tax payable by them. He verifies the returns and passes order of assessment. He issues notices for demand, if any, after assessment and takes necessary steps to recover the tax assessed. He is primarily responsible for the general administration of the office.

The officer next above the Sales Tax Officer, Sangli district, is the Assistant Commissioner of Sales Tax (Administration-*cum*-Appeals), Range III, Central Division, Sangli. The Sales Tax Officer seeks clarifications and advice from the Assistant Commissioner who hears appeals filed by the assessees aggrieved against the assessment orders passed by the Sales Tax Officer.

The officer next above the Assistant Commissioner of Sales Tax (Administration-*cum*-Appeals), Sangli, is the Deputy Commissioner of Sales Tax, Central Division, Poona, with headquarters at Poona. He enjoys administrative as well as appellate authority over the Assistant Commissioner.

The Commissioner of Sales Tax, Maharashtra State, Bombay, having headquarters at Bombay is the chief controlling, inspecting, co-ordinating, executive and administrative authority in the Sales Tax matters and is directly responsible to the Government.

The Maharashtra Sales Tax Tribunal hears appeals/revisions from assessees aggrieved against the orders of the Commissioner of Sales Tax, the Deputy Commissioner of Sales Tax and the Assistant Commissioner of Sales Tax.

Reference application can be filed to the High Court on a question of law arising out of orders of the Maharashtra Sales Tax Tribunal.

Statistics of Collections.

The following statement shows the revenue derived from Sales Tax in Sangli district during 1960-61 to 1962-63:—

Year		*Amount*
		Rs.
1960-61	...	17,22,420
1961-62	...	20,23,021
1962-63	..	19,61,736

STAMPS DEPARTMENT

STAMPS. Organisation.

The Superintendent of Stamps, Maharashtra, is the authority that controls the supply and sale of State Stamps in the State. In the Sangli district, the Collector of Sangli as the administrative head of the district holds the general charge of the Stamps department. No officer in the district is specially in charge of stamps. The work is done by the Stamp Head Clerk under the supervision of the Treasury Officer, Sangli. The Treasury Officer has the charge of the local depot at Sangli and is responsible for

CHAPTER 11. Revenue Administration. STAMPS. Organisation.

the maintenance of the stock of stamps, their distribution to branch depots and their sale to the public. Branch depots are located at every taluka and mahal headquarters and are in charge of the Sub-Treasury Officers, *i.e.*, the Mamlatdars and Mahalkaris.

To suit public convenience stamps are sold not only at the local depot and the branch depots but also at various other centres by vendors authorised by the Government. There are 20 licensed stamp vendors in the district. Besides, the Stamp Head Clerk has been appointed as an *ex-officio* stamp vendor. Similarly stamps are also sold direct to the public from sub-depots, *i.e.*, Sub-Treasuries, in case of the demand for stamps of higher denominations.

Income.

The following table gives the total income realised from stamps in the Sangli district during the period from 1962-63 to 1964-65 and the discount paid to licensed stamp vendors during the same period:—

	1961-62		1963-64		1965-66	
	Rs.	P.	Rs.	p.	Rs.	P.
(*I*) *Total income realised from Stamp Duty*						
(*i*) Judicial stamps ..	3,04,485	9	3,43,393	68	3,68,870	3
(*ii*) Non-judicial stamps	3,59,730	65	7,57,970	85	8,94,666	55
(*II*) *Discount paid to stamp vendors*						
(*i*) Judicial stamps ..	1,906	91	671	79	2,155	73
(*ii*) Non-judicial stamps	8,673	40	12,768	70	4,036	58

MOTOR VEHICLES DEPARTMENT

MOTOR VEHICLES. Motor Vehicles Act.

The Motor Vehicles department deals with the administration of the Motor Vehicles Tax and the Motor Vehicles (Amendment) Act of 1956, the Bombay Motor Vehicles Tax Act (LXV of 1958); Bombay Motor Vehicles (Taxation of Passengers) Act, 1958 and the Maharashtra Tax on Goods (carried by road) Act, 1962. Under the first Act all motor vehicles have to be registered, all drivers have to take out a licence, which is given only on their passing the prescribed test of competence, the hours of work of drivers of transport vehicles are to be restricted, and third party insurance of all vehicles plying in public places has to be effected. It gives power to the State Government to subject vehicles to strict mechanical tests and to control the number of vehicles to be licensed for public hire, specifying their routes and also the freight rates. Fees are leviable for registration and for issue of licences and permits.

State Transport Authority.

There is a State Transport Authority for the State, and Regional Transport Authorities have been set up for convenient regions of the State. The State Transport Authority co-ordinates the activities of the Regional Transport Authorities. The Regional Transport Authority controls the motor transport in

MOTOR VEHICLES.

State Transport Authority.

the region and deals with the issue of permits to different categories of transport vehicles according to the policy laid down by the State Transport Authority and the State Government from time to time. It also performs such duties as grant of authorisations to drive public service vehicles and conductors' licences, taking departmental action against those permit holders who contravene any condition of the permit etc., and prescribing policy in certain important matters relating to motor transport in the region.

Regional Transport Authority.

The jurisdiction of the Regional Transport Authority for Poona Region with headquarters at Poona extends over Sangli district along with the districts of Poona, Satara, Kolhapur, Sholapur and Amadnagar. It consists of four official and six non-official members nominated by Government under sub-section (1) of section 44 of the Motor Vehicles Act.

Regional Transport Officer.

The Regional Transport Officer functions as the Secretary and Executive Officer of the Regional Transport Authority. In his capacity as Regional Transport Officer he is the authority for licensing drivers and registering vehicles and also for prosecuting in cases of offences committed under the Motor Vehicles Act. Acting under the authority of the Regional Transport Authority he is responsible for all the duties connected with the issue of and countersignatures of authorisation to drive public service vehicles and conductors' licences, and with the grant, revocation, suspension and cancellation of permits for public carriers, private carriers, stage carriages and taxi cabs.

One Assistant Regional Transport Officer and one Supervisor assist the Regional Transport Officer, at headquarters. Nine Motor Vehicles Inspectors look after the work of registration, inspection of motor vehicles, testing of motor drivers and conductors, checking of motor vehicles and detecting offences under the Motor Vehicles Act. They are assisted by four Assistant Motor Vehicles Inspectors in these duties. One Motor Vehicle prosecutor looks after the prosecution work and conducts cases instituted in courts of law. He also assists the Regional Transport Officer in legal matters.

Liaison with Police Department.

This department has liaison with the Police department. The Police department carries out periodical checks of motor vehicles and detects offences under the Motor Vehicles Act. It also attends to references from the Motor Vehicles department regarding verification of character of applicants for public service vehicles authorisations, conductors' licences, taxi cab permits, etc. It also helps in the verification of non-use of vehicles and recoveries of arrears of taxes and in specifying particular places for bus stops, etc.

The District Magistrate is concerned with the department in connection with imposition of restrictions on road transport, fixation of speed limits, and location of motor stands at various places, etc.

CHAPTER 11.

Revenue Administration.

MOTOR VEHICLES.

Bombay Motor Vehicles Tax Act.

Under the Bombay Motor Vehicles Tax Act, taxes are levied on all motor vehicles except those designated and used solely for agricultural operations on farms and farm lands. The taxes are imposed according to the type of vehicle (*e.g.*, motor cycles, tricycles, goods vehicles, passenger vehicles, etc.) and their laden or unladen weight. The Act has removed all municipal and State tolls on motor vehicles. The rules made under this Act lay down that when a vehicle is to be registered within the State, the registering authority (*i.e.*, the Regional Transport Officer/Assistant Regional Transport Officer) shall verify the particulars furnished in the application for registration (*e.g.*, the make of vehicle, its capacity, etc.), and determine the rate of the tax for which the vehicle is liable. Every registered owner who wants to use or keep for use any vehicle in the State has to pay the tax determined. In respect of transport vehicle the limits within which the vehicle will be plied (whether only within the limits of particular municipality or cantonment, or throughout the State) has also to be stated. A token for the payment of the tax will be issued by the Taxation Authority and this has to be attached to and carried on the vehicle at all times when the vehicle is in use in a public place. A fresh declaration has to be made annually, or every time the tax has to be paid, *i.e.*, quarterly, half yearly or annually. The taxation authority before issuing the token in respect of the payment of the tax has to satisfy itself that every declaration is complete in all respects and the proper amount of tax has been paid. Every owner of a motor vehicle keeping his vehicle in non-use during any period has to give advance intimation of his intention of keeping his vehicle in non-use for any period for which he desires to be exempted from the payment of tax and declare the place of garage where the vehicle is kept while in non-use.

Bombay Motor Vehicles Act, 1958.

The Bombay Motor Vehicles (Taxation of Passengers) Act, 1958, envisages levy and payment to the State Government of a tax on all passengers carried by Stage carriages (including stage carriages used as contract carriages) at the rate of 15 per cent of the amount of the fares payable to the operator of the stage carriages except where such stage carriages ply exclusively within a municipal area or exclusively on such routes serving municipal and adjacent areas as may be approved by the State Government.

Maharashtra Tax on Goods Act, 1962

The Maharashtra Tax on Goods (carried by road) Act, 1962, came into force with effect from October 1, 1962. The tax in accordance with the provisions of the Act and the rules made thereunder is leviable on goods carried by the operators of public goods vehicles at the rate of 3 per cent of the freight charged for the carriage of the goods.

The said Act also provides for the payment of tax on goods by lump-sum payment. The rates of lump-sum payment have been notified by Government.*

* (Notification No TGA 1062-(V) XII, dated 13th September 1962). The Director of Transport, State of Maharashtra, Bombay, is the authority to receive their returns or the lump-sum payment.

INCOME-TAX DEPARTMENT.

The functioning of the Income-tax department in Sangli district falls under the administrative control of the Commissioner of Income-tax, Poona and the Inspecting Assistant Commissioner of Income-tax, Poona Range II, Poona. The appellate functions of the district come under the jurisdiction of the Appellate Assistant Commissioner of Income-tax, Kolhapur Range, Kolhapur. Appeals can be preferred by the assessees or the department to the Income-Tax Appellate Tribunal, Bombay, and to the appropriate judicial authority. The main work regarding income-tax in Sangli district is carried out by four Income-tax Officers assisted by four Inspectors and necessary ministerial staff.

The Income-tax unit in Sangli district has been divided into four wards each having a separate establishment. Their jurisdiction has been fixed territorially and has been classified according to income. The jurisdiction varies according to the pending work load at the beginning of the year.

On April 1, 1965, the number of assessees in the district stood at 6,058. Number of assessees assessable under the Wealth-tax was 137. The number of assessees under the gift-tax varied from year to year as the assessees are liable to payment only for the year in which taxable gifts are made.

The total net collection of Income-tax, Wealth-tax and Gift-tax for the year ending on 31st March 1965 was as given below:—

			Rs. (in thousands)
Income-tax	...	...	5369
Wealth-tax	...	...	180
Gift-tax	...	...	29

The classification of the assessees was as follows:—

Limited Companies	...	...	23
Firms	...	...	897
Hindu Undivided Families	...	...	178
Individuals	...	...	4310
Association of Persons	...	...	57

The field work of enquiry and survey is being done by the Inspectors. Notices are generally served by post as well as by the Notice Servers. The scrutiny and examination of accounts is being done at the office where the public is required to come with the books of accounts. For the convenience of the assessees the Income-tax Officers also camp at taluka places many times. The statutory powers of investigation, assessment and recovery are mainly given to the Income-tax Officer and he is the person, who mainly administers the Act. He, however, functions under the control and instructions of the higher authorities, as provided under the Act.

CHAPTER 11.

Revenue Administration.

INCOME-TAX.

The Act also provides for the recovery machinery in addition to the usual powers vested in Income-Tax Officers. Where assessee does not pay the tax after normal proceedings, and where it has to be recovered by coercive measures, the immovable properties of the assessee are attached. This is being done through the Collector of the district whose office acts as the Tax Recovery Office, under the Act.

The Income-Tax Officer, A-Ward, Sangli, is the administrative head of the office, and he also acts as the Public Relations Officer of the Department in the district.

CHAPTER 12—LAW, ORDER AND JUSTICE

POLICE DEPARTMENT.

CHAPTER 12.

Law, Order and Justice.

POLICE.

Functions.

THE PRIMARY FUNCTIONS OF THE POLICE are the prevention and the detection of crime, the maintenance of Law and Order, the apprehension of offenders, escorting and guarding of prisoners, treasure or private or public property of which they may be placed in charge and the prosecution of criminals. They have, however, various other duties to perform, such as control of traffic, censorship of plays and other performances, service of summonses and warrants in criminal cases, destruction of stray dogs, inspection of explosives and poison shops and extinguishing fires. Apart from these which are imposed upon them by law, other (miscellaneous) duties which fall upon Police department, such as giving aid to displaced persons and pilgrims, verification of character, passports and naturalisation inquiries, etc., are entrusted to them for administrative reasons.

Organisation.

Under section 4 of the Bombay Police Act (XXII of 1951) the superintendence of the police force throughout the State vests in and is exercisable by the State Government. In exercise of powers under section 6 of the Act, the State Government appoints the Inspector General of Police for the direction and supervision of the Police Force. The Inspector General of Police in the State of Maharashtra is thus the head of the police force and his headquarters is at Bombay. It is the province of the Inspector General to watch over the recruitment, education, housing and equipment of the police force and to regulate the internal organisation and method of working. He is assisted in his office by two Assistant Inspectors General of Police (Officers of the rank of District Superintendent of Police).

For the purpose of administration, Maharashtra State has been divided into four Police ranges, besides Greater Bombay.* These four ranges correspond with the four divisions for which Divisional Officers have been appointed. In Greater Bombay, the Commissioner of Police, who is second in the hierarchy, is in charge of the City Police Force. The State Criminal Investigation Department (C. I. D.) is under the control of an officer of the

* Recently Police Commissioners have been appointed for Poona and Nagpur Cities.

CHAPTER 12. Law, Order and Justice. POLICE. Organisation.

rank of the Deputy Inspector General of Police. Similarly the State Reserve Police Force Groups and Police. Training Schools are in charge of the Deputy Inspector General of Police, Headquarters. Each range in the State which is in charge of a Deputy Inspector General is divided into districts, each corresponding with the revenue district, and is in charge of a District Superintendent of Police. Under section 17 (1) of the Bombay Police Act, the District Magistrate has control over District Superintendent of Police and the police force of a district. He also decides the questions of policy and of the administration of law within the district; but he does not interfere in the questions of recruitment, internal economy or organisation of the district force which is the province of the Inspector General of Police.

For the purposes of Police administration, Sangli district is divided into two Sub-Divisions, *viz.*, Miraj Sub-Division and Islampur Sub-Division, each in charge of a Sub-Divisional Police Officer (Assistant Superintendent of Police or Deputy Superintendent of Police). The Miraj Sub-Division comprises 6 Police Stations and 9 Out-posts while the Islampur Sub-Division comprises 9 Police Stations and 12 Out-posts. The Sub-Divisional Officers are assisted in their work by an Inspector designated as Circle Police Inspector with headquarters at Miraj and Vita, respectively. One Police Inspector designated as Home Police Inspector supervises the work pertaining to criminal offences in Sangli City police station and acts as Personal Assistant to the District Superintendent of Police. For political and allied work, the district has an Intelligence Branch, called the Local Intelligence Branch which is in charge of a Sub-Inspector. The Crime Branch called the Local Crime Branch for the District is also in charge of a Sub-Inspector.

For recruitment and training of policemen, there is an officer called the Reserve Sub-Inspector, who is incharge of the headquarters. Arms, ammunition and other equipment are distributed from the district headquarters by the Reserve Sub-Inspector who works under the supervision of the Home Police Inspector.

Strength

The total sanctioned strength of police officers and men towards the end of 1962 was as under:—

Serial No.	Designation	Permanent	Temporary	Total
1	District Superintendent of Police	1	..	1
2	Sub-Divisional Police Officers ..	2	..	2
3	Police Inspectors	3	..	3
4	Police Sub-Inspectors	29	..	29
5	Unarmed Head Constables ..	120	8	128
6	Armed Head Constables ..	63	50	113
7	Unarmed Police Constables ..	367	66	433
8	Armed Police Constables.. ..	282	179	461
9	Head Wireless Operator	1	..	1
10	Wireless Operators	2	..	2

POLICE.

Expenditure.

The total expenditure on the police force for 1962 was Rs. 18,91,105.

The sanctioned strength of the police works out to one policeman per 2.97 square miles and per 1,104 persons.

Regular Duties.

The District Superintendent of Police is the executive head of the police force in the district. As such he is expected to keep the force under his control in proper trim and to ensure, by constant supervision, that the duty of prevention and detection of crime is properly performed by the force. He has to maintain intimate relations with the public with a view to making such changes as necessary from time to time. He has to tour extensively and inspect every police station and out-post in the district once a year. Sometimes he visits the scenes of serious offences like dacoity and murder, when organised gangs are suspected to be at work. He also visits scenes of other offences when a spate of crime is reported and gives suitable instructions to his subordinates to check it.

The Assistant Superintendent of Police or the Deputy Superintendent of Police *i.e.* officer-in-charge of Sub-Division is primarily responsible for all crime work in his charge. Under the general supervision of the District Superintendent of Police, he is responsible for the efficiency and discipline of the officers and men in his division and holds detailed inspections of the police stations and out-posts in his charge at regular intervals. He is assisted by one Sub-Divisional Police Inspector.

The Sub-Inspector of Police is the officer-in-charge of a police station. He is responsible for the prevention and detection of crime in his charge. He is assisted by a number of Head Constables and Constables. In the absence of the Sub-Inspector, the Head Constable holds charge of the police station as the Police Station Officer and looks to all routine work including investigation of crime. Constables perform such duties as may be ordered by Head Constables and their superior officers.

Recruitment.

Recruitment to the cadre of Assistant Superintendents of Police who belong to the Indian Police Service is made by the Government of India on the recommendations of the Union Public Service Commission. On their appointment to the service they are attached to the Central Police Training College, Mount Abu, for a period of one year and after successful completion of the training they are sent to the States concerned for undergoing further training. In this State, the probationers are attached to district for practical training for five and a half months and at the Police Training School, Nasik, for four and a half months before they are appointed to hold independent charges of Sub-Divisional Police Officers. An Assistant Superintendent of Police is considered eligible for promotion to a senior post in the Indian Police Service cadre after completion of four years' service from the date of joining.

Of the total number of appointments of police on the sanctioned cadre of Deputy Superintendents of Police 70 per cent are filled in by promotion from the lower ranks of the District

CHAPTER 12. Law, Order and Justice. POLICE. Recruitment.

Police Force and remaining 30 per cent by direct recruitment which is made by the State Government from candidates recommended by the Maharashtra Public Service Commission. Candidates appointed by direct recruitment are attached to the Police Training School, Nasik, for training and are kept on probation for a period of three years. During the first two years of their probationary period, they are required to pass departmental examination prescribed by the Government. After passing the prescribed examination while at the Police Training School, they are required to undergo practical training in districts for a period of one year. They are considered for promotion to Indian Police Service cadre after they put in eight years' service as Deputy Superintendents of Police.

Appointments of Inspectors of Police are made by Inspector General of Police from amongst the Sub-Inspectors of Police who are found fit for promotion. No direct recruitment is ordinarily made.

Recruitment of Sub-Inspectors is made by the Inspector General of Police, both by promotion of officers from the lower ranks of the District Police Force and by direct recruitment, 50 per cent of the vacancies being filled in by direct recruitment. Of the remaining 50 per cent. 25 per cent of the vacancies are filled in by departmental candidates passing the Police Sub-Inspector's Course at the Central Police Training School. Nasik, and the remaining 25 per cent by promotion of officers from lower ranks.

Candidates for direct recruitment may be either from outside the police or from the Police Department. These candidates are, in the first instance, selected for training in the Police Training School, Nasik, as Police Sub-Inspectors. The selection is made by the Inspector General of Police assisted by a Committee of the Commissioner of Police, Bombay, a Deputy Inspector General of Police and the Principal, Central Police Training School, Nasik.

The Police Constables are recruited directly and the Head Constables generally from the ranks of Constables. However, to attract better men, recruitment of Head Constables is made direct from qualified candidates up to one-third of the vacancies.

Armed and Unarmed Police.

There are two sections of the police force *viz.*, armed and unarmed. In 1962 the armed section consisted of 113 Head Constables and 461 Constables. The armed force is mainly allotted the duties of guarding jails and lock-ups and escorting prisoners and treasures. The unarmed section consisted of 128 Head Constables and 433 constables. The unarmed police are drilled to give them an upright and manly bearing and to enable them to turn, march and salute smartly and correctly and to instil discipline in them. They are taught squad drill, drill with and without arms, rifle and firing exercises, bayonet fighting, riot drill, dacoit operations, guard and sentry duty, skirmishing, ceremonial drill, etc.

POLICE.

Armed and Unarmed Police.

All the officers and men in the police force of the district are literate and they possess the necessary educational qualifications.

There is a static wireless station at Sangli city police station. The station is manned by one head wireless operator and two wireless operators.

Prohibition Staff.

The staff consisting of the Sub-Inspector, four unarmed Head Constables, 16 unarmed Police Constables, two armed Head Constables and six armed Police Constables is detailed for the prohibition work in the district.

Incidence of Crime.

The total number of cases of crime reported to the police during the years 1960 to 1962 is given below:—

	1960	1961	1962
(i) Total number of cases reported, Class I to V.	977	860	924
(ii) Total number of cases reported, Class VI.	2,649	2,972	2,963

Serious crime including murders, attempts at murders, culpable homicide, dacoities, robberies, house-breaking and thefts, riots and grievous hurts varied as under:—

1959	948
1960	706
1961	607
1962	661

The average crime under classes I to V for the last three years in this district comes to 920. The average crime under classes I to V per lakh of population during the last three years works out to 74.8.

The crime figures reported under Prohibition Act during 1960—62 were as under:—

1960	1961	1962
2,157	2,463	2,459

Out of 2,459 cases, 2,384 pertained to liquor and 75 to dope. The number of cases decided during the year 1962 was 416. Of the decided cases, 410 pertained to liquor and six to dope. Of these cases, convictions were recorded in 356 cases and 60 were acquitted or discharged. The number of persons convicted during the year was 45.67 per 100,000 of population. Of the 537 persons convicted in the year 1962, 531 were for liquor and six were for dope. No juvenile offender was convicted during the year 1962.

The average crime under the head 'prohibition' for 1960—62 in Sangli district comes to 2,359.7. The average crime under the head 'prohibition' per lakh of population for the period in the district works out to 1,919.

Prosecuting Staff.

In 1962 there were nine Police Prosecutors in the district.

CHAPTER 12. Law, Order and Justice. POLICE. Prosecuting Staff.

The total number of cases conducted by the prosecutors during the year 1962 was 2,774. Of these, 1,983 cases ended in conviction, 395 acquitted or discharged, 130 compounded, 24 withdrawn, 65 committed to sessions and 177 were pending trial. The percentage of conviction to cases decided works out to 49.82.

Besides these prosecutors, the executive staff conducted 661 chapter cases of which 387 ended in conviction, 147 in acquittal or discharged and 32 were compounded and 95 were pending trial.

Housing.

Government quarters have been provided in the district to nine officers and 394 men as against 29 officers and 1,115 men.

Village Police.

The village police organisation is constituted under the Bombay Village Police Act (VIII of 1867). The administration of the village police is vested in the District Magistrate who may delegate the execution of any provisions of the Act to an Assistant or Deputy Collector, being a Magistrate of the first class.

There are 534 villages in the district. Each village or group of villages has a police patil. The police patil is required to collect information regarding suspicious looking strangers and has to send it to the police station. He has to keep a strict watch over the movements of bad characters under surveillance of the police. When patrolling policeman goes to the village, he has to give all the information he possesses about events in the village. It is the duty of the village police patil to maintain law and order in the village. He is assisted in his work by the village watchman.

Home Guards

There is a Home Guards Unit in the district mainly to supplement the ordinary police force.

The Commandant General is in charge of the Home Guards organisation and under him are Commandants in each district who control the Home Guards in the district. The appointments of the District Commandants are made by the Government from the public and the posts are purely honorary carrying no remuneration. The organization is non-political and non-communal in character.

The Home Guards are trained in squad drill, lathi drill, use of arms, control of traffic, elementary law, mob-fighting, unarmed combat and guard and escort drill. They are also trained in first aid and fire-fighting. They are encouraged to take to social work. When called for duty they enjoy the same powers, privileges and protection as are enjoyed by an officer of the police force appointed under any Act for the time being in force. Their functions consist mainly of guarding public buildings, patrolling for the prevention of crime and assisting the police in their ordinary duties. They are issued uniforms and are paid duty allowance at prescribed rates whenever they are called out for duty.

POLICE. Village Defence Parties.

In 1962, out of 534 villages in the district, village defence parties had been formed in 527 villages with 101,325 persons enrolled as members. Licences to possess fire-arms had been granted to 1,059 of them. There were one honorary village defence officer and six honorary assistant village defence officers in the district, who were responsible for the organisation and promotion of the village defence parties in each village. The main functions of the village defence parties are to help the police in prevention and detection of crime. They have to perform night rounds and have to see that no breach of peace takes place.

JAIL DEPARTMENT

JAILS. Location.

There is one district prison and six taluka sub-jails in Sangli district. Prisoners with agricultural bail are inhabited in the Swatantrapur Colony situated at a distance of about two and a half miles from Atpadi where they are allowed to take their families. These prisoners work on the farm admeasuring about 58 acres attached to the Colony.

Classification.

The prison at Sangli has been classified as the district prison class II[1] mainly for confinement of casual prisoners sentenced up to two years and local undertrial prisoners.

The taluka sub-jails governed under the rules of the Bombay sub-jail manual in the districts are located at Islampur, Jath, Miraj, Tasgaon, Vita and Shirala.

Accommodation.

Sangli District Prison can accommodate 166 prisoners. The daily average population of the district prison during the year 1963 was 216. During 1963, 1,735 persons were admitted to the District Prison as against 1,669 released. Figures under the same heads for the year 1962 were 1,538 and 1,598, respectively.

Organisation.

For purposes of prison administration, the State has been divided into two Regions *viz.*, Eastern Region and Western Region. The Aurangabad and Nagpur revenue divisions constitute the Eastern Region and Bombay and Poona revenue divisions constitute the Western Region. The Superintendents of Nagpur Central Prison and the Yeravda Central Prison have been appointed as *ex-officio* Deputy Inspector General of Prisons of the Eastern and Western Regions respectively. Some of the powers exercised by the Inspector General of Prisons have been delegated to the Deputy Inspectors General of Prisons. The Regional Deputy Inspectors General of Prisons have been put in the immediate over-all charge of the prisons in their respective regions. The Inspector General of Prisons exercises general control and superintendence of all prisons and jails in the State, subject to the orders of the State Government.

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[1] *Vide* Government Home Department, Order No. RJM. 1058/(i)-IV, dated 26th April 1962.

CHAPTER 12. Law, Order and Justice. JAILS. Organisation.

The Superintendent, Sangli District Prison, is vested with executive management of the prison in all matters relating to internal economy, discipline, labour, punishment, etc., subject to the orders and authority of the Regional Deputy Inspector General of Prisons and the Inspector General of Prisons, Maharashtra State, Poona. The Superintendent, Sangli District Prison, is assisted in his work by the Jailor Group II and other ministerial staff. Prisoners promoted to the rank of Convict Overseers and Night Watchmen are utilised for prison services.

The full-time Medical Officer on deputation from the Medical department looks after the prison hospital at the Sangli District Prison.

Training.

The Jail Officers' Training School was started in 1955 at Poona, with a view to imparting practical as well as theoretical training to the prison officers (Superintendents of Prisons, Jailors Group I and II) on various subjects relating to correctional administration and prison management. This School provides training to guards and N.C.O.s also.

Accounts test has been prescribed for Gazetted and Non-Gazetted staff of the prison department. The examination is conducted by the Public Service Commission twice a year. The Inspector General of Prisons conducts examination twice a year for ministerial and technical staff. The ministerial staff is deputed for training in accounts matters every three months. The training is organised by the Deputy Director of Accounts and Treasuries at Bombay, Poona, Nagpur and Aurangabad.

Classification of Prisoners.

Prisoners are classified as Class-I or Class-II by the Court after taking into consideration their status in society and also the nature of the offence committed. They are further classified as casuals, habituals, under-trials, etc.

Work.

On admission, a prisoner is examined by the Medical Officer, who classifies him as fit for light, medium or hard labour. Suitable work is assigned to prisoners after taking into account their health conditions, aptitude, etc.

Industries.

Prisoners are engaged in handloom weaving, pitloom weaving and tailoring at the Sangli District Prison. The value of the products was placed at Rs. 17,663 in 1962 and Rs. 26,491 in 1963. The number of workers engaged in these factories was 46 in 1962 and 45 in 1963.

Wages.

Prisoners who are engaged in prison occupations are paid wages as per rules.

Remission of Sentence.

Prisoners are granted ordinary remission, annual good conduct remission, special remission, state remission, blood donation remission, remission for conservancy work and remission for physical training as per the rules.

Release on Parole and Furlough.

A prisoner is released on parole by the Divisional Commissioner under whose jurisdiction the prisoner is lodged, in the event of serious illness or death of any member of his family or

his nearest relative or for any other sufficient cause. The period spent on parole does not count as part of sentence.

Release on Parole and Furlough.

During 1963 expenditure in respect of Sangli District Prison was Rs. 85,569.

Advisory Board.

The cases of long-term prisoners are initially reviewed by an Advisory Board. Deserving prisoners are released prematurely under the orders of Government by remitting the unexpired portion of their sentences.

Board of Visitors.

A Board of Visitors comprising official and non-official visitors is appointed for the prison. There are four non-official visitors of which two are the members of the Maharashtra Legislature and are nominated by the Government. The appointment of non-official visitors other than members of the Maharashtra Legislature is made for a period not exceeding three years.

Two moral lecturers have been appointed at the Sangli District Prison.

Education.

Literacy classes are conducted for prisoners under the supervision of a paid teacher. School books, slates and pencils are provided to prisoners at Government cost. Prisoners who desire to prosecute higher studies are also extended necessary facilities. Education in ethics and good citizenship is conducted at the District Prison by two eminent persons appointed for the purpose.

Recreational and Cultural Activities.

Documentary and full length films are exhibited to prisoners ordinarily once a month by the Publicity department. Newspapers are supplied to convict prisoners at Government cost as per the scale laid down under the rules. A library has been organised for the benefit of prisoners. Prisoners are also permitted to keep at a time two religious and ten non-religious books of their own. Facilities for playing games like hu-tu-tu, kho-kho, volley-ball, *atya-patya*, *lezim*, etc., have been provided for the prisoners.

Welfare of Prisoners.

Matters pertaining to the welfare of prisoners are attended to by prison officers as per rules. A canteen is also conducted for their benefit.

Discipline.

Emphasis is always laid on the maintenance of good discipline in the prison. Positive and constructive discipline is treated as the basic foundation for wholesome changes in the attitude of the prisoners.

DIRECTORATE OF SOCIAL WELFARE (CORRECTIONAL ADMINISTRATION WING AND NON-CORRECTIONAL WING)

SOCIAL WELFARE.

Legislation.

The Bombay Children Act (LXXI of 1948): Central Provinces and Berar Children Act, 1928; Hyderabad Children Act, 1951, The Bombay Borstal Schools Act (XVIII of 1929)[1] and the

[1] The provisions of the Borstal Schools Act are implemented by the Jail Department.

CHAPTER 12. Law, Order and Justice. SOCIAL WELFARE. Legislation.

Bombay Probation of Offenders Act (XIX of 1938) are the enactments of social legislation, the aim of which is to protect children and to prevent young offenders and youthful adult offenders from becoming anti-social elements. While the Children Acts deal with children below sixteen years of age, the Borstal Schools Act is applied to adolescents between 16 and 21 and the Probation of Offenders Act provides for supervision of offenders of any age, especially those between 21 and 25 and those who have not committed offences punishable with death or transportation for life. In addition the Bombay Habitual Offenders' Restriction Act (II of 1947) was passed with a view to making provision for restricting the movement of habitual offenders, for requiring them to report themselves and for placing them in settlements.

Children Act.

The Bombay Children Act consolidates all previous laws relating to the custody, protection, treatment and rehabilitation of children and youthful offenders and also for the trial of youthful offenders. It gives protection to four principal classes of children *viz.*, (1) those who are neglected, destitute or living in immoral surroundings and those in moral danger; (2) uncontrollable children who have been reported as such by their parents, (3) children especially girls who have been used for begging and such other purposes by mercenary persons; and (4) young delinquents who either in the company or at the instigation of elderly persons or by their inability to surmount difficulties encountered by them or by their failure to adjust themselves to the given circumstances have committed offences against the various laws of the land. Such children are taken charge of either by the police or by officers known as the Probation Officers and in most cases are kept in Remand Homes. A Remand Home is primarily a place of safety where a child can be safely accommodated until its case is decided by the Juvenile Court. It is also a place of observation where a child's character and behaviour can be minutely observed and its needs fully provided for by wise and careful consideration. After enquiries regarding their home conditions and antecedents have been completed they are placed before special courts known as "Juvenile Courts" and dealt with according to the provisions of the Children Act. If the home conditions are found to be satisfactory and if what is needed is only restoration to their parents they are placed under the supervision of a trained Probation Officer. If the home conditions are unwholesome and uncongenial, the children are committed to institutions known as "Certified Schools" or "Fit Persons Institutions".

"Fit Person" includes any association established for the reception and protection of children. In all these schools or institutions the children receive training, according to their individual aptitudes, in carpentry, smithy, book-binding, tailoring, agriculture, weaving, poultry-farming, goat-rearing, gardening, etc. Youthful offenders, when implicated in any offence along with adult offenders, have to be tried separately in

SOCIAL WELFARE.

Children Act.

Juvenile Courts. The technique employed in Juvenile Courts is entirely different from that in adult courts. Penal terms are avoided, and even the word "punishment" has been dropped from the enactment in describing the treatment to be meted out to such children. The children are regarded only as victims of circumstances.

Adolescent criminals coming under the Borstal Schools Act are sent for detention and training in the Borstal School, Kolhapur.

Machinery to enforce legislation.

For the proper enforcement of the legislative enactments mentioned above, machinery both official and non-official is provided. The non-official machinery is provided by the Maharashtra State Probation and Aftercare Association, Poona, with a network of affiliated bodies called the District Probation and Aftercare Associations which are actively functioning in twenty districts of the State. These associations provide "Remand Homes" and "Aftercare Hostels" and also employ Probation Officers to make enquiries regarding the home conditions and antecedents of children as also to supervise the young persons released either directly by courts or on licence from Certified Schools and the Borstal School. As regards offenders dealt with under the Probation of Offenders Act, the work of the District Association consists of only making preliminary enquiries regarding the cases of alleged offenders referred to them and in carrying in selected areas supervision of offenders released on probation.

The official agency is now the Correctional Administration Wing of the Directorate of Social Welfare. Until 1934 the Juvenil edepartment, as it was then known, was controlled by the Education department. From April 1934, it was attached to the Backward Class department under the control of the Home department. The Backward Class Officer was designated as the Chief Inspector of Certified Schools. In March 1946, the administration of the Bombay Beggars Act (XXIII of 1945) was added to the duties of Backward Class Officers. As the work increased and the Backward Class Officer could not devote much attention to the expansion of work under the social laws relating to children from the Juvenile Branch, the Maharashtra State Probation and Aftercare Association and the Beggars Branch were divorced from the control of the Backward Class Officer from June 1947 and these three branches were constituted into a separate department called the "Juvenile and Beggars Department" under the full-time Chief Inspector of Certified Schools and the Chief Inspector of Certified Institutions.

In 1957, Government constituted the Directorate of Social Welfare[1] and set up a single organisation for looking after the various social welfare activities of Government at the executive level on a co-ordinated basis. Accordingly the Backward Class department was redesignated as Social Welfare department with effect from 15th September 1957 and took over the activities of

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[1] Government Resolution, Labour and Social Welfare Department, No. BCE-2857-D, dated 23rd September 1957.

CHAPTER 12. Law, Order and Justice. SOCIAL WELFARE. Machinery to enforce legislation.

the Juvenile and Beggars Department and other Social Welfare activities *viz.*, the education of the blind, deaf, dumb and mentally retarded, youth welfare, recreation and leisure-time activities (including cultural activities), matters pertaining to the State Homes, District Shelters, Reception Centres under the Moral and Social Hygiene Programme, training for and research in social work (including socio-economic surveys), co-ordination of social work, management of destitute homes and infirmaries for displaced persons and organisation of statistics, research and publicity in the field of social welfare. The work of issuing licences to institutions doing social welfare has also been entrusted to this Directorate under the Women's and Children's Institutions (Licensing) Act, 1956.

All this work is being executed by this Directorate through the Divisional Social Welfare Officers at Poona, Bombay, Nagpur and Aurangabad who in turn implement the various schemes under this Directorate through the District Social Welfare Officers, Chief Officers under the Bombay Probation of Offenders Act and Probation Officers of districts under them.

The duties of Probation Officers are:—

(1) to study the children that are brought before the Juvenile Court and to submit reports regarding them to the Court suggesting a treatment programme;

(2) to supervise the children placed under their supervision by the Juvenile Court;

(3) to conduct enquiries regarding applications received by the Juvenile Court;

(4) to conduct the inquiries referred to the District Probation and Aftercare Association by other institutions in respect of children and beggars;

(5) to conduct inquiries regarding children proposed to be released on licence from different certified schools and the Borstal School, and to supervise such children as are released on licence;

(6) to conduct inquiries and supervision work under the Probation of Offenders Act; and

(7) to undertake propaganda work to further the objects of the legislation relating to children and youthful offenders.

Beggars Act.

So far as the Sangli district is concerned the Beggars Act has not yet been applied to the district. There are no institutions for beggars either run by Government or certified under the Act in the district.

Application of the Children Act and Institutions under it

While part VII of the Bombay Children Act is applicable to the district, parts V and VI of the Act are applicable to the railway and town area of Miraj, the railway and town area of Madhavnagar, the town area of Budhgaon and the railway area of Vishrambag and Wanleswadi railway stations.

CHAPTER 12. Law, Order and Justice. SOCIAL WELFARE. Machinery to enforce legislation.

There is a Remand Home for boys in Sangli run by the District Probation and Aftercare Association. The Remand Home is located on Sangli-Miraj Road. The District Probation and After care Association has its own building for the Remand Home for boys only. Maximum accommodation of the institution is for 80 children. There is no Certified School in district but there is a Fit Person Institution known as "Velankar Balak Mandir" (formerly known as Anath Arbhakalaya).

The number of children dealt with under the Bombay Children Act by the Juvenile Court, Sangli, since its inception is as follows:—

Year		No.	Year		No.
1952-53	..	..	1957-58	..	88
1953-54	..	65	1958-59	..	134
1954-55	..	59	1959-60	..	209
1955-56	..	87	1960-61	..	214
1956-57	..	88	1961-62	..	271
			1962-63	..	202

Bombay Probation of Offenders Act.

The Bombay Probation of Offenders Act, 1938 has been made applicable to the district since 1958 and a Chief Officer has been appointed for implementing the Act in the district. His headquarters are at Sangli, but he tours the district with a view to supervising the cases and to making inquiries in respect of cases referred to him by the Judicial Magistrates for investigation and report. This Act provides for the release of certain types of offenders on probation and/or supervision instead of sending them to jails. The Act provides for treatment as against undergoing the sentence, and gives an opportunity to certain offenders, especially first offenders, to improve their behaviour without the stigma of imprisonment.

JUDICIAL DEPARTMENT

JUDICIAL. District Judge.

Sangli district was formed after the merger of the Ex-Deccan States on the 1st August 1949. Since then the District Judge, Sangli, is the highest judicial authority in the district and presides over the district court. Under Article 233 of the Constitution of India, appointments, posting and promotion of district judges[1] are to be made by the Governor in consultation with the High Court; and under Article 234, appointments of persons other than district judges to the judicial service[2] is made by the Governor in accordance with rules made by him after consultation with the State Public Service Commission and with the High Court. Under Article 235, the control over the district court

[1] Under Article 236 of the Constitution of India, the term "District Judge" includes additional district judge, assistant district judge, chief judge of a small cause court, sessions judge, additional sessions judge and assistant sessions judge.

[2] In Article 236 of the Constitution of India, "judicial service" is described as a service consisting exclusively of persons intended to fill the post of district judge and other civil and judicial posts inferior to the post of district judge.

CHAPTER 12. — Law, Order and Justice. JUDICIAL.

and the courts subordinate to it, including the posting and promotion of, and the grant of leave to, persons belonging to the judicial service and holding any post inferior to the post of District Judge, is vested in the High Court.

Civil Courts.

The District Court is the principal court of original jurisdiction in the district and it is also a court of appeal from all decrees and orders up to the value of Rs. 10,000 passed by the subordinate courts from which an appeal can be preferred. The District Judge exercises general control over all the civil courts and their establishments and inspects the proceedings of these courts.

In addition to the District Court, there are located in Sangli two other courts, each presided over by an Assistant Judge. The Assistant Judge exercises both original and appellate jurisdiction.

Subordinate to the District Judge are two cadres of Civil Judges, Junior Division and Senior Division. The jurisdiction of a Civil Judge (Junior Division) extends to all original suits and proceedings of a civil nature wherein the subject-matter does not exceed Rs. 10,000 in value, while that of a Civil Judge (Senior Division) extends to all original suits and proceedings of civil nature irrespective of the value of the subject-matter. Appeals in suit or proceedings wherein the subject-matter does not exceed Rs. 10.000 in value are taken to the District Court, while in those wherein the subject-matter exceeds Rs. 10,000 in value are taken direct to the High Court.

There is one court of the Civil Judge (Senior Division) at Sangli, which is assisted by a Joint Civil Judge (Senior Division). Besides these two Courts, there are three Courts of Joint Civil Judges (Junior Division) and Judicial Magistrates, First Class, at Sangli.

Outside Sangli, there are courts of Civil Judge (Junior Division) and Judicial Magistrate, First Class, at Miraj, Islampur, Tasgaon and Vita and are assisted by Joint Civil Judges (Junior Division) and Judicial Magistrates, First Class. At present there is a Second Joint Civil Judge (Junior Division) and Judicial Magistrate, First Class, at Miraj who presides over the linked court at Jath. There are Criminal Circuit Courts at Atpadi, Shirala and Kavathe Mahankal in the district.

Criminal Courts.

The District Judge, Sangli, is also the Sessions Judge of the district. The Sessions Judge tries criminal cases which are committed to his court by Judicial Magistrates after preliminary enquiry and hears appeals against the decision of subordinate magistrates.

In addition to the Sessions Judge, there are two Additional Sessions Judges. These posts of Additional Sessions Judges are held by the Assistant Judge, on the civil side. The Sessions

Judge and Additional Sessions Judges can pass any sentence authorised by law, but any sentence of death passed by them is subject to confirmation by the High Court. One of the Assistant Judges and Additional Sessions Judges is also appointed as Special Judge for disposing of criminal cases under the Criminal Law Amendment Act (XLVI of 1952).

Executive and Judicial Magistrates.

The Bombay Separation of Judicial and Executive Functions Act (XXIII of 1951) has classified the magistracy of the State into two categories, *viz*., (1) Judicial Magistrates and (2) Executive Magistrates. Judicial Magistrates are of the following classes:—(1) Presidency Magistrates; (2) Magistrates of the First Class; (3) Magistrates of the Second Class; (4) Magistrates of the Third Class; and (5) Special Judicial Magistrates. Executive Magistrates fall under the following classes:—(1) District Magistrates; (2) Sub-Divisional Magistrates; (3) Taluka Magistrates; (4) Presidency Magistrates, specially empowered by the State Government; and (5) Special Executive Magistrates. The State Government may, in consultation with the High Court, direct any two or more Judicial Magistrates to sit together as a bench and invest it with the powers of a Magistrate of any class.

Presidency Magistrates work in Greater Bombay, and Special Judicial Magistrates are appointed by the State Government in consultation with the High Court to try particular cases or classes of cases or cases generally in any local area. Special Executive Magistrates are appointed by the State Government for particular areas or for the performance of particular functions.

All Judicial Magistrates and benches of Judicial Magistrates are subordinate to the Sessions Judge who may from time to time make rules or give special orders as to the distribution of business among them.

All Executive Magistrates are subordinate to the District Magistrate. Appeals from orders requiring security for keeping the peace or for good behaviour lie from Executive Magistrates to the Court of Sessions (section 406, Criminal Procedure Code). The State Government has power by notification to direct that appeals for such orders made by a Magistrate other than the District Magistrate shall lie to the District Magistrate and not to the Court of Sessions. Again, under section 406-A of the Criminal Procedure Code any person aggrieved by an order refusing to accept or rejecting a surety under section 122 may appeal against such order, if made by a District Magistrate, to the Court of Sessions. Under section 435 (4), the High Court is empowered to call for and examine the record of any proceeding under section 143 (prohibition of repetition of nuisance), 144 (temporary order in urgent cases of nuisance or apprehended danger), and 145 (procedure where disputes as to immoveable property are likely to cause breach of the peace), even though such proceedings were before an Executive Magistrate.

The ordinary powers of the Magistrates of the Third, Second and First Class are detailed, respectively, in Parts I, II and III of the Criminal Procedure Code. They may be invested with

CHAPTER 12.

Law, Order and Justice.

JUDICIAL.

Executive and Judicial Magistrates.

additional powers by the State Government in consultation with the High Court, and these additional powers are detailed in Schedule IV of the Code. They are competent to pass the following sentences:—

(*a*) Magistrates of the First Class.	(1) Imprisonment for a term not exceeding 2 years, including such solitary confinement as is authorised by law ; (2) Fine not exceeding Rs. 1,000.
(*b*) Magistrates of the Second Class.	(1) Imprisonment for a term not exceeding 6 months, including such solitary confinement as is authorised by law ; (2) Fine not exceeding Rs. 200.
(*c*) Magistrates of the Third Class.	(1) Imprisonment for a term not exceeding one month ; (2) Fine not exceeding Rs. 50.

After the effective application of the Bombay Separation of Judicial and Executive Functions Act, criminal justice is dispensed by Judicial Magistrates or Civil Judges-*cum*-Judicial Magistrates. At present (October 1963), two Joint Civil Judges (Junior Division) and Judicial Magistrates at Sangli dispense with Criminal work. The Joint Civil Judges (Junior Division) and Judicial Magistrates, First Class, at Miraj, Islampur, Tasgaon and Vita dispense with the criminal work. There are no separate Courts of Judicial Magistrates only, in the district. The district has four Honorary Magistrates including two ladies.

Other Law Officers.

The following are the other Law Officers of Government functioning in Sangli district (October 1963): -

(1) District Government Pleader and Public Prosecutor ;

(2) Assistant Government Pleader and Assistant Public Prosecutor ;

(3) Second Assistant Government Pleader and Second Assistant Public Prosecutor ;

(4) Honorary Assistant to the District Government Pleader and Public Prosecutor.

There are also Sub-Government Pleaders at Islampur, Miraj, Tasgaon and Vita

In addition there are 217 legal practitioners practising in the district.

Bar Associations.

There is a District Bar Association at Sangli since the formation of the district. The total membership of the Association in October 1963 was 95 It has its own Bar Library.

Besides the District Bar Association at Sangli, there are Bar Associations at Islampur, Miraj, Tasgaon, Vita and Jath in the district. The dates of establishment and the membership of

Bar Associations.

these Bar Associations are as under:—

Name of the Bar Association	Date of establishment	Membership (in September 1963)
(1)	(2)	(3)
Bar Association, Islampur	..	30
Bar Association, Miraj	1-8-49.	25
Bar Association, Tasgaon	1936	20
Bar Association, Vita	1929	25
Bar Association, Jath	1-8-49	10

The Bar Associations at Islampur, Miraj, Tasgaon and Jath have their own libraries. The Bar Association at Vita, however, has a combined Court-*cum*-Bar Library.

Nyaya Panchayats.

Under the Bombay Village Panchayats Act (VI of 1933), Nyaya Panchayats have been formed in a number of villages, and these institutions are empowered to try petty civil suits and criminal cases. These powers are detailed in the section relating to village panchayats. Appeals from these courts are allowed to the District Court in civil suits and to the Sessions Court in criminal cases.

Statistics of Courts.

In the various Courts of Sangli district, at the beginning of the year 1962, there were 1,711 suits pending. During the same year 1,779 suits were instituted and 1,660 suits were disposed of and the number of suits pending at the end of the year was 1,830 (39 revived and 12 otherwise received).

Of the 1,779 suits instituted, 95 were for money or moveable property, 440 were of value not exceeding Rs. 100; 958 were of value above Rs. 100 but not exceeding Rs. 1,000; 213 were of value above Rs. 1,000 but not exceeding Rs. 5,000 and 64 were of value above Rs. 5,000. The total value of suits instituted was Rs. 21,85,089.99.

Out of the 1,660 suits disposed of, 347 were disposed of without trial; 195 *ex parte*, 45 on admission of claims; 323 by compromise; 714 after full trial; 36 by transfer.

There were 482 appeals (including Miscellaneous and Debt Adjustment Board appeals) pending at the beginning of the year 1962. During the same year 462 appeals were instituted and 498 disposed of. The number of appeals pending at the end of the year was 446.

Of the 498 appeals disposed of, 220 were dismissed or not prosecuted; 194 confirmed, 28 modified; 30 reversed; and 26 remanded for retrial.

In Sessions Court, 72 offences were reported during the year 1962. The number of persons under trial was 186. The cases of 155 persons were disposed of during the year. Of these 96

CHAPTER 12.

Law, Order and Justice.

JUDICIAL.

Revenue and Expenditure.

persons were acquitted or discharged and 59 were convicted. Of the 59 convicted, three persons were awarded death sentence, 18 were sentenced to transportation or penal servitude and 38 to imprisonment.

The revenue and expenditure of the Judicial Department in Sangli district for the year 1962-63 were as follows:—

Revenue	Rs.	P.
(i) Sale proceeds............[of unclaimed and escheated property]	4,745	99
(ii) Fines by Civil and Sessions Courts	2,130	0
(iii) Magisterial fines	42,186	75
(iv) Cash receipts of record rooms	43,025	54
(v) Miscellaneous receipts, etc.	5,093	7
Total ..	97,181	35

Expenditure	Rs.	P.
(i) Pay of Officers	98,955	23
(ii) Pay of Establishment	1,62,635	51
(iii) Pay of Process Serving establishment ..	29,208	41
(iv) Travelling Allowance	9,527	36
(v) Dearness Allowance	1,64,766	62
(vi) Contingencies, etc.	42,281	21
Total ..	5,07,374	34

CHAPTER 13—OTHER DEPARTMENTS

BUILDINGS AND COMMUNICATIONS DEPARTMENT.

CHAPTER 13. Other Departments. BUILDINGS AND COMMUNICATIONS. Organisation.

THE BUILDINGS AND COMMUNICATIONS DEPARTMENT at the district level is under the dual control of the State Government as also of the Zilla Parishad. All the works relating to the roads below the category of State highways and the buildings required by the Zilla Parishad are the responsibility of the Zilla Parishad. The responsibility for the maintenance of State and National Highways and Buildings required by the State sector are the responsibility of the department under the State sector. The responsibility regarding all minor irrigation schemes that will irrigate less than 101.17 hectares (250 acres) of land vests with the Zilla Parishad.

The department at the State level is headed by the Chief Engineer to the Government who is also the Joint Secretary to the Government. Under the Chief Engineer are the Superintending Engineers of Buildings and Communications Circles and the Electrical Engineer to the Government.

The Superintending Engineer is in charge of the department and is responsible for the administration and general professional control of all the works in charge of the Buildings and Communications Department in his circle. Sangli district falls under the jurisdiction of the Superintending Engineer, Central Circle, Poona. He has to satisfy himself that the system of management prevailing is efficient and economic. He is empowered to transfer and post Deputy Engineers and Overseers in his circle. However, Executive Engineers are consulted before posting these officers to particular sub-divisional charges under their control for administrative convenience. He recommends removal and transfer of Executive Engineers from his Circle. He is also the authority in whom vests the supervision and control of assessment of revenue from irrigation works within his Circle. He is authorised to correspond direct with any of the local authorities, civil or military, within his Circle.

The Executive Engineer is responsible to the Superintending Engineer of his Circle for execution and management of all works within the district in the State sector. The works coming under

CHAPTER 13. Other Departments. BUILDINGS AND COMMUNICATIONS. Organisation.

the district sector are controlled by the Parishad Executive Engineer who is responsible to the Chief Executive Officer of the Zilla Parishad.

The headquarters of the Executive Engineer, Buildings and Communications Department in the State sector was at Sangli up to April 30, 1962. It was, however, merged with Kolhapur Division from May 1, 1962. On the formation of the Zilla Parishad, the works which remained with the State sector alongwith the Buildings and Communications Sub-Division, Sangli, the Special Project Sub-Division, Sangli and the Building Project Sub-Division, Vita were attached to the Kolhapur Sub-Division.

The Overseers are in charge of Sections. They work under the Sub-Divisional Officers. The activities of the department relate to construction, repairs and maintenance of roads (State Highways and National Highways) and Government buildings which have remained with the State sector.

The department in the State sector has to maintain National Highways and State Highways which account for 344.04 km. (213.98 miles) composed of 29.47 km. (18.31 miles) of State Highways and 314.57 km. (195.47 miles) of National Highways. These roads are maintained by the Executive Engineer, Buildings and Communications Division, Kolhapur. The Deputy Engineer, Buildings and Communications Sub-Division, Sangli, looks after the construction and maintenance of State highways and National highways and the buildings in the district in the State sector under his jurisdiction

The department at the district level is headed by the Parishad Executive Engineer. He is directly responsible to the Chief Executive Officer of the Zilla Parishad. However, in technical matters the advice of the Superintending Engineer prevails. The Sangli Zilla Parishad has undertaken a lot of constructional activity since its formation.

Electrical Circle

The functions of the Electrical Circle under Buildings and Communications Department are execution of electrical works in Government buildings and carrying out inspection of public installations as required under the I. E. Act, 1910 and Rules thereunder. This Circle has also to work as an adviser to Government in respect of administration of I. E. Act and Rules thereunder

The Electrical Circle, under the Buildings and Communications Department is headed by the Electrical Engineer to Government whose jurisdiction extends over the entire State of Maharashtra.

There are five Electrical Divisions working under the Electrical Engineer to Government in charge of the Executive Engineers, two at Bombay, two at Poona and one at Nagpur. Of these five

BUILDINGS AND COMMUNICATIONS.

Electrical Circle.

Divisions, one each is at Bombay, Poona and Nagpur, and are carrying out twofold duties as stated above and the officer-in-charge (i.e., Executive Engineer) is also designated as the Electrical Inspector.

The Executive Engineer and Electrical Inspector, Poona Electrical Division, Poona, has jurisdiction over Sangli district along-with other districts of the State.

There are four Sub-Divisions under the Executive Engineer and Electrical Inspector, Poona Division, Poona. One of the Sub-Divisions with its headquarters at Kolhapur is in charge of the Deputy Engineer and Assistant Electrical Inspector, Kolhapur. His jurisdiction extends over Sangli district besides two other districts.

The Divisional Officer at Poona has to execute original and special repairs and maintenance works of electrical installations in Government buildings under his jurisdiction in his capacity as the Executive Engineer and has to carry out inspections of M. P. and H. T. public electrical installations in his capacity as Electrical Inspector.

IRRIGATION AND POWER DEPARTMENT.

IRRIGATION AND POWER.

Organisation

The Superintending Engineer is responsible to the Chief Engineer for the administration and general professional control of public works in charge of the department in his Circle. He inspects the state of various works under his charge with a view to ensuring proper and efficient working of the departmental activities within his jurisdiction. The Executive Engineer is responsible to the Superintending Engineer for the execution and management of all the works in his Division. The Sub-Divisional Officers responsible to the Executive Engineer are placed in charge of the Sub-Divisions for management and execution of works within their Sub-Divisions. Overseers work under the Sub-Divisional Officers.

All the irrigation works in Sangli district are administered by the Executive Engineer, Kolhapur Irrigation Division. Kolhapur. All the minor irrigation schemes that irrigate up to 101.17 hectares (250 acres) are the responsibility of the Zilla Parishad. The various activities pertaining to irrigation consist of management of the existing irrigation works, construction of medium and minor irrigation works and investigation of various minor irrigation works. There are three Sub-Divisions which look after the works in Sangli district. The Minor Irrigation Project Sub-Division, Miraj, looks after the investigation, construction and maintenance of minor irrigation works in the district. The Irrigation Sub-Division, Tasgaon, looks after construction of minor and medium works in the district. The Krishna Canal Sub-Division, Karad, looks after a part of remodelling and extension of Krishna Canal and Chikhali Canal in Sangli district.

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Other Departments.
IRRIGATION AND POWER.
Organisation.

Irrigation works in Sangli district nearing completion.

Name of the work	Location	Estimated cost	Benefits on completion (area in acres)	Area in acres (1962-63)
		Rs.		
Tank at Kuchi ..	.. Miraj taluka	4,45,000	347·220 (858)	434·228 hect. (1,073) (m. 62-63)
Vajrachounde Bandhara.	Miraj taluka	7,01,699	1,333·440 (3,295)	62·72 hect. (155) (m. 62-63)
Rethare Dharanache	.. Walva taluka	2,32,666	167·945 (415)	114·526 hect. (283) (m. 62-63)
Chikhali Canal ..	.. Khanapur taluka.	12,587	182·109 (450)	37·231 hect. (92) (m. 62-63)
The following works are under execution.				
Tank at Atpadi	.. Khanapur taluka.	15,96,000	2,769	..
Balwadi Bandhara on Yerla River.	.. Do. ..	19,37,057	4,800	..
Part of Krishna Canal beyond Mile No. 17.	.. Tasgaon and Walva taluka	70,25,000 complete project.	17,253	..

The Krishna Irrigation Project that will provide irrigation facilities to the district of Satara and Sangli envisages storages on the Venna river at Kanher and on the Krishna at Dhom and Borkhel in Wai and Satara talukas all in Satara district. It will have a left bank canal, 111.045 km. (69 miles) in length from Dhom, irrigating 23067.102 hectares (57,000 acres), a feeder canal from Kanher to Borkhel of 14.484 meters (9 miles) in length, irrigating 809.372 hectares (2,000 acres) and a left bank canal of 212.433 km. (132 miles) from Borkhel storage irrigating 46538.890 hectares (115,000 acres).

Storage near Kanher on Venna is mainly meant as a feeder to Borkhel system. The project is estimated to cost about Rs. 28 crores.

Warna River Project will benefit Sangli and Kolhapur districts. The project provides for a large storage reservoir across the Warna at Khujgaon and canals on both the banks. The Canals are expected to irrigate about 48764.663 hectares (1,20,500 acres) in the Sangli district. The Kolhapur district will also be benefited. The estimated cost of the project is Rs. 30 crores.

Public Health.

The work of preparing plans and estimates for major Public Health Schemes in the Poona Public Health Circle is entrusted to the Public Health Project Division, Poona.

The Public Health Works Division located at Kolhapur under the supervision of the Superintending Engineer, Poona Public Health Circle, Poona, is entrusted with Public Health Schemes in Sangli district excepting those schemes undertaken by the village

IRRIGATION AND POWER.

Public Health.

panchayats and which will cost less than Rs. 5,00,000. The Public Health Works Division, Kolhapur, is divided into five sub-divisions viz., the Ratnagiri Sanitary Sub-Division, Ratnagiri; the Kolhapur Water-Supply Sub-Division, Kolhapur; the Sangli Sanitary Sub-Division, Sangli; the Miraj Sanitary Sub-Division, Miraj and the Mahabaleshwar Water-Supply Construction Sub-Division, Satara.

The Public Health Works in Sangli district are looked after by the Sub-Divisional Officers, Sangli Sanitary Sub-Division, Sangli and Miraj Sanitary Sub-Division, Miraj.

Walva and Shirala talukas of Sangli district and Sangli town proper, come under the jurisdiction of the Sub-Divisional Officer, Sangli Sanitary Sub-Division, Sangli. Remaining talukas of the district come within the jurisdiction of the Sub-Divisional Officer, Miraj Sanitary Sub-Division, Miraj.

The Major Public Health Schemes in the district are prepared by the Sub-Divisional Officer, Public Health Projects Sub-Division with headquarters at Kolhapur and under the control of the Executive Engineer, Public Health Project Division, Poona.

Sangli, Miraj, Vita, Islampur, Budhgaon, Kakadwadi, Kavlapur and Madhavnagar in the district are provided with protected piped water-supply. Improvements to Sangli water-supply, water-supply to Market Yard at Sangli, improvement to Miraj water-supply and underground drainage scheme at Miraj are in progress in the district. It is proposed to undertake Tasgaon water-supply scheme, Sangli drainage scheme, Islampur drainage scheme and scheme for water-supply to Industrial Estate at Sangli in the fourth five year plan. Water-supply schemes for Kameri, Bahe and Mhaisal estimated to cost Rs. 1,10,381, Rs. 1,06,035 and Rs. 1,18,200, respectively, have been entrusted to the Sangli Zilla Parishad.

AGRICULTURE DEPARMENT.

AGRICULTURE. Organisation.

With the formation of the Zilla Parishad the Agriculture department was split up into State and District sectors. While State sector includes schemes like town compost, sugarcane development, cotton extension, taluka seed farms, experimental and research farms, soil conservation, and *gram sevak* training centre, the District sector includes those such as *kharif* and *rabi* campaigns, paddy pilot schemes, horticultural development, construction of tahsil godowns, air compressor, blasting and tractor ploughing, rural compost, fertiliser distribution, plant protection and appliances on 50 per cent subsidy, green manuring, intensive cultivation of food crops and pulses, distribution of cement, iron and steel.

The department in the State sector is headed by the Director of Agriculture, Maharashtra State, Poona. The activities falling in the State sector at district level are controlled and supervised by the Assistant Cotton Extension Officer who is subordinate to

CHAPTER 13. — Other Departments. AGRICULTURE. Organisation.

the Superintending Agricultural Officer, Poona. He is designated as officer in charge of residuary activities.

The Agricultural Development Officer is placed in charge of the schemes falling within the sphere of the district sector. He is immediately responsible to the Chief Executive Officer of the Zilla Parishad. The District Agricultural Officer works as the Secretary to the Agriculture Committee of the Zilla Parishad. He is assisted in his work by Agricultural Supervisors, Agricultural Assistants and other necessary staff.

Schemes under Zilla Parishad.

Following is a brief account of schemes falling under the Zilla Parishad.

Demonstration and Propaganda.—To impart knowledge in modern agricultural practices by way of demonstrations, as many as 47 demonstration centres have been set up in the district. Of these Miraj taluka has 18, Khanapur 14, Tasgaon 3, Jath 4, and Walva 8. With the help of *Gram Sevaks* and agricultural assistants general propaganda work is carried on by the District Agricultural Officer. Agricultural programmes are implemented through the Agricultural Extension Officers under the guidance of Block Development Officers. Propaganda is also carried on by holding fairs and exhibitions and by starting *kharif* and *rabi* campaigns in order to induce the agriculturists to adopt modern and scientific agricultural practices and devices on an increased scale.

Farmers unions.—There are 843 Farmers' Unions with a membership of 12,747 They have been established with a view to disseminating agricultural research carried out at the Government Research Centres. The services of these unions are often utilised to distribute fertilizers and pesticides.

Horticultural Development.—To improve the plantation methods and to increase the fruit yield, arrangement is made to give prompt technical advice to the agriculturists. They are also granted loans up to Rs. 300 per acre for the same.

Tractor ploughing and Blasting.—In the area selected by the Agricultural Committee of the Zilla Parishad tractor ploughing is adopted with the aid of labour and machinery made available by the State. To increase water-supply for agricultural purposes boring and blasting units are also provided depending upon the requirements. Receipts on this account are credited to the State Government.

Fertiliser Supply.—By means of effective propaganda the agriculturists have been made to realise the importance of compost. To encourage them to prepare compost, awards have been instituted and are given away to the village or the town producing the maximum amount of compost. Besides giving the agriculturists practical training in preparing compost, the district sector also supplies chemical fertilisers.

Other Departments.

AGRICULTURE.

Schemes under Zilla Parishad.

Pest control and crop protection.—To protect the crops from various pests and diseases pesticides and instruments to spray them are provided at subsidised rates. In 1959-60 pesticides worth Rs. 95,556 were sprayed with the help of planes over an area of 15,603 acres. In 1960-61 planes were also pressed into service.

Crop competitions and exhibitions.—As an incentive to grow more, cash prizes are awarded to those producing more per acre. Periodically, exhibitions of modern agricultural implements, seeds and seedlings are held at important fairs. At Sangli one such exhibition is held annually. To promote horticultural activities yet another exhibition is held annually in the town.

Schemes under the State sector.

State sector has undertaken the following schemes in the district.

Research Centre.—Realising the increasing importance of agricultural research, an agricultural research centre has been set up at Digraj. It was set up in 1958 and since then has been conducting valuable research. Seed and seedling growing centres have also been started in each taluka. The nursery set up in Ambrai garden at Sangli is the most important and grows a variety of seeds and seedlings.

Soil conservation.—Soil conservation activities in the district are in charge of the Divisional Soil Conservation Officer, Sangli. However, for actual work the district is divided into Miraj and Jath divisions. Till 1959-60 work in respect of nearly 57 villages was completed under this scheme.

Under the Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Land Holdings Act, 1947, land consolidation work has been taken up in the district. It is supervised by a consolidation officer assisted by assistant consolidation officers.

Agricultural School, Digraj.—For the provision of agricultural education and training in improved agricultural practices an agricultural school was set up at Digraj 8 km. from Sangli in 1958. It started functioning in August 1959. The course is of two years duration. It admits 50 students annually. The selected candidates other than those belonging to backward classes get a monthly stipend of Rs. 20 and those belonging to the backward classes Rs. 25.

ANIMAL HUSBANDRY DEPARTMENT

ANIMAL HUSBANDRY.

Functions.

Treatment of sick animals, control of cattle epidemics, castration and breeding of healthy cattle are the primary functions of the Animal Husbandry department. Besides, the department also advises the people in hygienic methods of animal management and for propaganda purposes participates in cattle and poultry fairs and shows held from time to time at various places in the State.

Organisation.

Activities concerning animal husbandry in the district are controlled by the Zilla Parishad and the functions regarding animal husbandry which forms a section of the Agriculture

CHAPTER 13. Other Departments. ANIMAL HUSBANDRY.

department are controlled by the District Animal Husbandry Officer responsible to the Agricultural Development Officer of the Zilla Parishad. In technical matters the advice of the Director of Animal Husbandry who is the head of the department at the State level, prevails.

Activities in the District.

A chain of seven veterinary dispensaries and 21 aid centres has been established throughout the district. The work of treating and vaccinating animals and poultry birds against various diseases is carried out by the veterinary officers and stockmen attached to these veterinary institutions. In 1961-62, 63,080 animals were given treatment and 1,77,375 poultry birds were vaccinated. These veterinary institutions also undertake castrations and breeding of healthy cattle.

Natural as well as artificial methods are employed in the breeding. At present though there is no district artificial insemination centre, four such sub-centres have been established at Miraj, Tasgaon, Vita and Islampur. These are attached to the veterinary dispensaries at the respective places and the work is carried on by the veterinary officers and stockmen, no special staff having been recruited for the purpose. For natural breeding the district has been supplied with 59 premium bulls and 258 premium cows (1961-62). At Bilashi a Premium Bull centre has been established.

Poultry development activities in the district are promoted by supplying good quality hatching eggs and pure breed of cocks. The District Poultry Breeding Farm has been temporarily set up at Bhilavadi.

The district has two Sheep and Wool Extension Centres, recently set up to rear good quality rams and improve the local breed.

FOREST DEPARTMENT

FOREST. Organisation.

Forest department is headed by the Chief Conservator of Forests with his headquarters at Poona. The whole State is divided into six circles for administrative purpose.

The circles are—

Name of Circle	*Headquarters*
Nasik Circle ..	.. Nasik.
Poona Circle	.. Poona.
Nagpur Circle	.. Nagpur.
Amravati Circle	.. Amravati.
Chanda Circle	.. Nagpur.
Bombay Circle	.. Thana.

Each circle is headed by a Conservator of Forests who has under him Divisional Forest Officers and Sub-divisional Forest Officers to look after administration and management of Divisions and Sub-divisions, respectively.

Other Departments.

FOREST.

Organisation.

The Divisions are divided into Sub-divisions which are further divided into Ranges, each placed in charge of a Range Forest Officer. Ranges are further sub-divided into Rounds and Rounds into Beats managed by Round Officers and Beat Guards, respectively.

In so far as the forest administration is concerned, Sangli district comes under the administrative charge of Satara Division which falls in Poona circle. The Divisional Forest Officer, Satara, is responsible for the forest administration of Sangli district.

As compared to other districts of the State, Sangli is poorer in forest resources. The area under forest in charge of Forest department is as under:

Type	*Area in Sq. Miles*	
(1) Reserved Forests ..	(107·09)	277·363 Km²
(2) Protected Forests ..	(0·03)	0·777 Km²
(3) Leased Forests ..	(0·55)	1·425 Km²
(4) Unclassed Forests ..	(1·59)	4·118 Km²
Total ..	(109·26)	282·983 Km²

The district's forest resources being very meagre, annual stocking of forest, production of both timber and fuelwood and annual revenue yield are consequently poor.

Forests in Sangli district can be conveniently classified into four groups *viz.*, (1) Evergreen forests of the Sahyadris, (2) Wet and dry deciduous forests on the slopes of hills that run east and form the catchment area of Varna river, (3) Forests with bushy and stunted tree growth on the hills to the east of Krishna and (4) Grassy areas with sparse tree growth in Jath taluka.

These forest areas are divided into three ranges *viz.*, Karad range which includes Walva, Tasgaon, Khanapur talukas and a part of Shirala mahal (Shirala round), Dhebewadi which includes other parts of Shirala mahal (Panumbra round) and Jath which includes Jath forests.

Demarcation.

Forest areas in Tasgaon, Khanapur, Walva talukas and Shirala mahal belong to old Satara Division and still continue to remain with it. These are classed as reserved forests and are demarcated with cairns. After the merger of Jath State, forest areas in Jath were included in Bagalkot division but were subsequently transferred to Satara Division (1-9-1956). These are also declared as reserved forests but have not so far been demarcated. Forests in Atpadi mahal of the old Aundh State were also declared as reserved forests under Indian Forests Act. 1927. There was no scientific management till its transfer to forest department in 1954-55. Uptill 1953-54 these were managed by the Revenue department which also collected the revenue

CHAPTER 13. yield of these forests. These forest areas also have not been demarcated.

Other Departments. FOREST. Demarcation.

An area of 183.072 hect. (452 acres 38 gunthas) of Dandoba hills comprising Bhose, Kharsing, and Khande Rajuri villages of Kavathe Mahankal Mahal were transferred to Forest department for afforestation on condition that it shall revert to Revenue department if no longer required for the purpose for which it is transferred. Of this an area of only 105.218 hect. (260 acres) has been brought under afforestation. It has been proposed to transfer the remaining area to the Revenue department as it mainly consists of agricultural land.

Exploitation.

Accessible forests are exploited as per the prescription of the working plans. Those forest areas lying in the extreme West of Shirala Mahal are inaccessible and hence have so far not been exploited. Islampur by virtue of its central location is the principal market for the forest produce of Sangli district.

Wild Animals.

In Sangli district forests are mostly confined to Western portion of Shirala Mahal and wild animals are met within these areas. To preserve wild life shooting of wild animals and bird's is licensed and to regulate this shooting blocks are created. The list of shooting blocks is published by Conservator of Forests in State Gazette annually. Shooting in reserved forests is controlled and regulated by issue of permits for 15 days or one month by Divisional Forests Officer with the approval of the Chief Conservator of Forests.

DIRECTORATE OF INDUSTRIES

INDUSTRIES. Organisation.

The work done by the Directorate of Industries in Sangli district is mainly confined to the development and progress of large-scale, small-scale and cottage industries in the district. The Department of Industries was reorganised as the Directorate of Industries in August 1960. The work pertaining to cottage industries which was looked after by the Directorate of Industries from 1st December 1960 was transferred to the Zilla Parishad with its formation on 1st May 1962.

The Industries Commissioner and the Director of Industries heads the Directorate of Industries, Maharashtra State, Bombay. He is also the Central Stores Purchasing Officer. the Controller of Weights and Measures, the State Coal Controller and the State Textile Controller. The Deputy Director of Industries, Poona Region, who is a Regional head works directly under the Industries Commissioner. The Collectors of the districts have been declared as the *ex-officio* Deputy Commissioners of Industries and the Industries Officer of the district is attached to the Collectorate. The Regional heads act as Technical Advisers and pay greater attention to the development aspect and advise the prospective entrepreneurs in regard to the problems faced by them. The Industries Officers have to work in close collaboration with the Regional Officer in respect of common matters

INDUSTRIES.

and functions. Two Junior Industries Inspectors have been posted at Sangli and Miraj, respectively. Besides, one Senior Industries Inspector works at Sangli in the office of the Industries Officer, Sangli.

Functions.

The main functions of the Directorate of Industries pertain to Large-Scale Industries, Cottage Industries and Small-Scale Industries.

They are as under—

Large-Scale Industries.

(i) to process applications for industrial licences under the Industries (Development and Regulation) Act, 1951, as amended, and to make suitable recommendations to Government of India,

(ii) to advise parties on formalities and technical matters,

(iii) to assist parties in securing land, water, power, transport facilities, etc.,

(iv) to offer laboratory facilities for analysis of raw materials, finished products, etc., and

(v) to promote industrial research by means of research grants;

Small-Scale Industries.

(i) to assist parties in securing land, water, power and transport facilities, etc.,

(ii) to develop suitable sites in the industrial estates so as to offer to the small entrepreneurs ready built worksheds with power and water arrangements and with community facilities like post office, canteen, etc., on co-operative basis in suitable cases,

(iii) grant of financial assistance by way of loans under the Maharashtra State Aid to Industries Act, 1960, and the Maharashtra State Aid to Industries Rules, 1961, and subsidy on power supply and to sponsor grant of such assistance by Institutions like the State Bank of India, the State Financial Corporation and the National Small Industries Corporation for purchase of machinery,

(iv) to assist parties in securing imported raw materials and controlled indigenous materials,

(v) to assist parties in marketing products by registration with the Central Stores Purchase Organisation, Director General of Supplies and Disposals, National Small Industries Corporation and by persuading them to join the quality Marking Scheme,

(vi) to collect quarterly statistics of production and labour, and

(vii) to advise parties on formalities and technical matters;

Cottage Industries.

(i) to grant financial assistance exceeding Rs. 3,000 and up to Rs. 5,000 under the Maharashtra State Aid to Industries Act, 1960, and Maharashtra State Aid to Industries Rules, 1961, to artisans and formation of their industrial co-operatives and

(ii) to encourage the industries by marginal preferences in State Purchase Programme.

CHAPTER 13. Other Departments. INDUSTRIES. Functions. Miscellaneous.

The Directorate also performs certain other functions such as: (i) Central Purchase of Stores required by Government Departments and Institutions and (ii) enforcement of the Bombay Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Act, 1958.

Functions transferred to Zilla Parished.—It may be mentioned that functions of this Directorate which are given below have been transferred to Zilla Parishad from 1st May 1962.

(i) to grant financial assistance up to Rs. 3,000 under the Maharashtra State Aid to Industries Act, 1960 and Maharashtra State Aid to Industries Rules, 1961 and under *bona fide* craftsmen and Backward Class Artisans and educated unemployed schemes and

(ii) to organise training-*cum*-production centres.

The Government in 1961-62 disbursed loans of Rs. 1,09,600 to three industrial units. The amount thus disbursed by way of loans rose to Rs. 2,14.000 to 59 industrial units in 1962-63. The Sangli Co-operative Industrial Estate Society secured loan of Rs. 2,00,000 from Sangli Bank under Government guarantee; Rs. 2,00,000 by way of *ad hoc* grant from Small Savings Collection and Rs. 50,000 by way of advance from common facility centre. The Government contributed Rs. 1,94,852 towards the share capital of the society as equal matching contribution.

CO-OPERATIVE DEPARTMENT

CO-OPERATION

The activities of the Co-operative department extend to the fields of rural finance, agricultural marketing, industrial co-operatives and money-lending business in the district. These activities are governed under the Maharashtra Co-operative Societies Act, 1961.

Organisation.

Prior to the establishment of the Zilla Parishad, Co-operative department in Sangli district consisted of four different wings viz., (i) Co-operative Section (proper). (ii) Industrial Co-operatives Section, (iii) Money-lending Section and (iv) Marketing Section. These sections worked more or less independently of each other and hence there was no proper co-ordination. There was also some overlapping of functions. To remedy such anomalies Government overhauled the old set up in 1961 which ensured co-ordination as also integration of the activities of the various departments.

With the formation of the Zilla Parishad, Co-operation has come under the dual control of the Zilla Parishad and the State Government. The Co-operative department of the Zilla Parishad is responsible for the registration, organisation, supervision, inspection, etc., of all types of co-operative societies in rural areas, having authorised share capital up to Rs. 50,000 or working capital up to Rs. 5 lakhs. It has also to supervise and

CO-OPERATION.

Organisation.

control all regulated markets. All those schemes which do not come within the sphere of the Zilla Parishad are looked after by the department in the State sector.

The department at the State level is headed by the Registrar of Co-operative Societies, Maharashtra State, Poona. At the Divisional level is the Divisional Joint Registrar who is generally assisted by a Divisional Deputy Registrar and three Divisional Assistant Registrars. Audit section is placed in charge of the Divisional Special Auditor.

The district is placed in charge of the District Deputy Registrar of Co-operative Societies, Sangli. He is assisted in his work by two Assistant Registrars whose jurisdiction extends over areas specified by the District Deputy Registrar after taking account of the actual workload. In addition there are Co-operative Officers, Assistant Co-operative Officers, Supervisors and other ministerial staff who assist in the execution of field duties. The Assistant Registrars enjoy all powers under the Maharashtra Co-operative Societies Act, 1961, except those under Sections 64 and 64-A of the former Act of 1925 which has been replaced by the 1961 Act. They also act as Assistant Registrars of Money Lenders within their respective jurisdictions.

With the formation of the Zilla Parishad one of the four Assistant Registrars (including one dairy organiser), one Co-operative Officer and one Assistant Co-operative Officer from the field staff were transferred to it.

The department at the district level now includes the following staff:—

(1) Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Class I with his jurisdiction extending over Walva, Shirala and Khanapur talukas and

(2) Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies, with his jurisdiction extending over Miraj, Jath and Tasgaon talukas.

The field staff consists of two Co-operative Officers and three Assistant Co-operative Officers working on functional basis. At the taluka level there are 17 Co-operative Supervisors including four Supervisors for Paddy Pilot work. Under the revised set up, the Assistant Registrars look after all matters pertaining to the co-operative movement with the help of field staff under them. For technical help, especially in matters relating to the industrial and lift irrigation societies, one mechanical supervisor, one assistant co-operative officer for incomplete lift irrigation schemes and one powerloom jobber have been placed at the disposal of the District Deputy Registrar.

With the passing of the Maharashtra Co-operative Societies Act, 1960, and the rules made thereunder, the audit section has been bifurcated and a District Special Auditor for Co-operative Societies has been appointed with independent audit staff under him.

CHAPTER 13. Other Departments. CO-OPERATION. Accomplishments.

The co-operative movement in Sangli district has so far made good progress. The following are the noteworthy achievements made in the district during the post-war period:

(i) Registration of Shetkari Sahakari Sakhar Karkhana, Ltd., Sangli.

(ii) Establishment of Industrial Estates at Sangli, Miraj, Tasgaon and Islampur.

(iii) Registration of Groundnut Producers Society (which is a novel experiment on co-operative basis) and organisation of feeder societies.

(iv) Organisation of Krishna Valley Milk Project by the Dairy Development Department with feeder societies and

(v) District Co-operative Land Development (Mortgage) Bank for Sangli District.

The following statement shows the progress made by the co-operative movement in Sangli district

STATEMENT SHOWING THE DEVELOPMENT OF CO-OPERATIVE MOVEMENT IN SANGLI DISTRICT

Particulars	Prior to Plan period 1949-50	1950-51	1951-52 to 1955-56	1956-57 to 1960-61	1961-62 to 1965-66 for 1961-62
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Number of Societies	351	365	365	831	876
Number of members	23,483	25,101	65,677	129,253	139,896
Share Capital	Rs. 6,35,366	7,45,352	37,50,822	1,50,64,962	1,93,01,570
Member Deposits	Rs. 3,42,545	3,65,410	3,46,720	4,87,818	5,33,995
Bank Loans (outstanding)	Rs. 7,70,959	10,75,937	69,85,242	1,45,73,714	1,77,76,664
Reserve and Other Funds	Rs. 8,49,934	8,86,106	22,87,362	91,54,453	1,05,82,698
Working Capital	Rs. 29,05,416	34,30,472	2,11,18,252	8,09,77,303	11,36,54,019
Population covered	..	14 per cent	29·9 per cent	60·3 per cent	62·2 per cent
Percentage of villages covered	..	77 per cent	81·7 per cent	90 per cent	100 per cent

CHAPTER 13.

Other Departments.

FISHERIES.

Organisation.

FISHERIES DEPARTMENT

A Superintendent of Fisheries has his headquarters at Kolhapur with the opening of a sub-office in 1951. This office is entrusted with the supervision of fisheries in Sangli, Satara and Kolhapur districts. The Superintendent works directly under the Director of Fisheries, Maharashtra State, Bombay. He is assisted in his work by an Assistant Superintendent with other ministerial staff.

The duties of the Superintendent of Fisheries are as under:—

(i) Granting lease of fishing rights of portions of rivers, tanks and ponds in the district.

(ii) Conducting survey of new sheets of water to assess their suitability for pisciculture.

(iii) Stocking of tanks and reservoirs with suitable varieties of fishes.

(iv) Collection of local fry and its nurture in nursery tanks.

(v) Supervision of the tanks.

(vi) Formation and supervision of the fisheries co-operative societies and devise ways and means to improve the socio-economic conditions of fishermen.

(vii) To investigate the applications from fishermen for loan for fishery works and subsidies on fishing twine.

(viii) To watch and effect loan recoveries and credit the money to the treasury.

(ix) To encourage the fishermen to take advantage of the guidance afforded by the department.

(x) To collect statistics of fish and other data pertaining to fisheries and fishermen of the district.

(xi) To supervise the work of development of fisheries in the districts of Kolhapur, Sangli and Satara.

(xii) To allot refrigerated cabinets to local bodies or co-operative societies.

MAHARASHTRA STATE ROAD TRANSPORT CORPORATION

STATE TRANSPORT.

Introduction.

Nationalisation of passenger transport was decided upon by the State Government in August 1947 and initially the services were started departmentally in June 1948. The administration was subsequently handed over to a statutory Corporation in December 1949, under the provisions of the Road Transport Corporation Act (XXXII of 1948). Since then the Corporation has been reconstituted under the Road Transport Act LXIV of 1950.

Organisation.

For administrative convenience of operating the services the erstwhile Bombay State was originally divided into 16 viable units called divisions. After the States reorganisation in 1956, three units were transferred to Mysore State. With the bifurcation of the bilingual Bombay State on May 1, 1960, five northern

divisions were transferred to the Gujarat State thus leaving 8 divisions in the residual Corporation in Maharashtra. With the merger of the Public Transport Services, Nagpur, in the Vidarbha region and the State Transport Services in the Marathwada region, from July 1, 1961, two new divisions were created. Simultaneously, the name of the Corporation was changed from "Bombay State Road Transport Corporation" to "Maharashtra State Road Transport Corporation".

The officer-in-charge of each division is called the Divisional Controller who is a Class I Officer. He is immediately under the control of the Central Office of which the General Manager is the administrative head assisted by the following departments and branches, *viz.*, (1) Administration, (2) Accounts and Audit, (3) Traffic, (4) Mechanical Engineering, (5) Statistics, (6) Security, (7) Stores, (8) Civil Engineering, (9) Secretariat, (10) Legal and (11) Central Workshops.

The nationalisation of services in Sangli district, which forms part of Kolhapur Division, was started in March 1949. The Divisional Controller is the head of the division and is responsible for the operations in the division. He is assisted by 9 Class II Officers, who are charged with the following functional responsibilities.

Administration and Traffic.—There are two officers under these heads of activity. The Divisional Traffic Officer is in charge of all matters relating to traffic and operations and the Labour Officer looks after all matters relating to labour relations with the administration. Matters relating to Publicity in the division are also looked after by the Labour Officer,

Accounts and Statistics.—These branches are manned by two officers viz., the Divisional Accounts Officer and the Divisional Statistician.

Technical.—The technical side of the divisions is looked after by the Divisional Mechanical Engineer with the assistance of the Divisional Works Superintendent. Besides, there are as many Depot Managers as there are depots who are wholly responsible for the working of the respective depots in the Division.

The operations in the Sangli district were first started on the Sangli-Bijapur route with three vehicles. The first depot at Sangli was started in January 1950 with eight vehicles. The process of expansion was very rapid and within a few years the operations were practically spread over the whole district. By 31st December 1962 there were in all five depots in the district situated at Sangli, Islampur, Vita, Tasgaon and Jath. The Kolhapur division, of which Sangli district forms a part, had 277 buses plying on 239 routes. The buses put on road have, on an average, a seating capacity of 42.6, exclusive of seats for the driver and the conductor. The average daily mileage covered by these buses during December 1962 was 28,824, carrying, on an average, 68,206 passengers per day.

CHAPTER 13. — Other Departments. — STATE TRANSPORT. — Organisation.

The light and heavy repairs of the buses are carried out at the Divisional Workshop which is situated at Kolhapur. Further, after the operation of every 12,000 miles the vehicles are routed by the depots to the Divisional Workshop for preventive maintenance. In addition, a number of depot workshops are situated at each of the following places for the daily maintenance of vehicles viz., Kolhapur (72), Sangli (41), Karad (40), Islampur (22), Ichalkaranji (22), Vita (20), Tasgaon (19) and Jath (17). The number of vehicles attached to each of these depots is given in brackets. Regular daily and weekly servicing, weekly and 4,000 mile docking for maintenance are carried out in these depots.

For the convenience of the travelling public the Corporation provides a number of amenities in the district.

At the bus station at Sangli the amenities such as a refreshment room, waiting hall, fruit stall, "pan-bidi" stall and newspaper stall, etc., have been provided. Temporary bus stations are also provided at Atpadi, Jath, Kavathe Mahankal, Miraj, Tasgaon and Vita. In addition pick-up stands with tea stalls and waiting halls are provided at Khanapur, Kavathepiran, Kadegaon, Kadepur, Sangli Post Office, Sangli Market, Wanleswadi and Miraj.

The Corporation also provides welfare facilities to its employees. There is a Labour Welfare Centre which provides indoor games and recreational facilities at Kolhapur, the headquarters of the division. Welfare facilities for workers' families are also provided at this centre, such as sewing classes, montessori classes, etc. In addition to this, medical dispensaries for the workers and their families are provided at Kolhapur, Sangli and Karad.

Posts and Telegraphs Department

POSTS AND TELEGRAPHS.

The post and telegraph offices in Sangli district fall under the administrative control of the Superintendent of Post Offices, Sangli Division, Sangli. The Head Post Office at Sangli controls the accounts of the posts and telegraphs offices in the district.

Of the total of 329 post offices in the district 273 are branch post offices in charge of extra departmental agents having no telegraph facility, 31 are postal sub-offices without telegraph facility, 24 are combined post offices with telegraph facilities and one is the head post office without telegraph facility.

CHAPTER 14 — LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT

CHAPTER 14.

Local Self-Government.

INTRODUCTION.

THE LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT IN THE DISTRICT is conducted by various statutory bodies. such as, the municipalities, the village panchayats and the Zilla Parishad enjoying local autonomy in different degrees. The progress of these institutions has been in three spheres. Firstly, in regard to their constitution, from fully or partly nominated bodies, they have now become entirely elective. Secondly, their franchise, which had gone on widening with the enactment of the Bombay Local Authorities. Adult Franchise and Removal of Reservation of Seats Act (XVII of 1950). has reached the widest limit possible, *viz.*, universal adult franchise. Every person who:—

(a) is a citizen of India;

(b) has attained the age of 21 years; and

(c) has the requisite residence. business premises or taxation qualification

is now entitled to be enrolled as a voter. Prior to 1950, reservation of seats. was provided in the municipalities and in the District Local Board. for women, Muhammedans, Christians, Anglo-Indians, Harijans and Backward Tribes and in the village panchayats for women, Muhammedans, Harijans and Backward Tribes. The enactment mentioned above abolished the reservation of seats for Muhammedans, Christians and Anglo-Indians, but continued it for ten years from the commencement of the Constitution of India (*i.e.*, till 25th January 1960), for women. the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes, which more or less represent Harijans and Backward Tribes. Thirdly, wider and wider powers have been gradually conferred on local bodies for the administration of the area under their charge.

The realisation of the aims behind the creation of local self-governing institutions has been achieved with the advent of the Zilla Parishads after the enactment known as the Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and the Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961.

The Divisional Commissioner exercises control and authority over all institutions of local self-government in his jurisdiction. The jurisdiction of the Divisional Commissioner, Poona Division, Poona, extends over Sangli district. He exercises control and authority under the Bombay Village Sanitation Act (I of 1889) the

CHAPTER 14. Local Self-Government. INTRODUCTION.

Bombay District Vaccination Act (I of 1892); the Bombay District Municipal Act (III of 1901); the Bombay Town Planning Act of 1954; the Bombay Local Fund Audit Act (XXV of 1930); the Bombay Village Panchayats Act (VI of 1933); the Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961.

MUNICIPALITIES.

The total area under the administration of the municipalities in the district during 1961-62 was nearly 247 km² (95.5 square miles) with a population of 1,92,430. There are six municipalities in this district at Sangli, Miraj, Tasgaon, Vita, Ashta and Islampur. Of these, Sangli and Miraj are the city municipalities and the rest are the district municipalities. They are all governed under the Bombay District Municipal Act (III of 1901). The State Government has power to declare by notification any local area to be a 'municipal district' and also to alter the limits of any existing municipal district. In every municipal district, a municipality has to be constituted consisting of elected councillors, the Commissioner having power to nominate councillors to represent constituencies which fail to elect the full number allotted to them. The State Government has power to prescribe the number and the extent of the wards to be constituted in each municipal district and the number of councillors to be elected by each ward. The term of office of a municipality is for four years, but it could be extended to an aggregate of five years by an order of the Commissioner. Under the Act, every municipality has to be presided over by a president selected from among the councillors and either appointed by the Government or elected by the municipality if the State Government so directs. There shall be a Vice-President for every municipality elected by the councillors from amongst themselves but if the president is appointed by the State Government or if he is the *ex-officio* president the result of the election shall, if the State Government, by general or special order from time to time so directs, be subject to the approval of the State Government or of the Divisional Commissioner.

The government of a municipal district vests in the municipality. The president is the head of the municipality whose duty is to—

(*a*) preside over the meetings of the municipality;

(*b*) watch the financial and executive administration and to perform such other executive functions as may be performed by the municipality; and

(*c*) exercise supervision and control over the acts and proceedings of all officers and servants of the municipality.

There is a provision for the compulsory constitution of a Managing Committee in case of all the municipalities and of a pilgrim committee in case of those municipalities which have been specially notified by the State Government. Option is also left to the municipalities to appoint other executive or consultative committees.

The Act divides the duties of the municipalities into obligatory and optional. The former includes all matters essential to the health, safety, convenience and well-being of the population, while the latter covers those which, despite being legitimate objects of local expenditure, are not considered absolutely essential. The following are among the obligatory duties laid on all municipalities:—

(*a*) lighting public streets, places and buildings;

(*b*) watering public streets and places;

(*c*) cleansing public streets, places and sewers, removing noxious vegetation; and abating all public nuisances;

(*d*) extinguishing fires, and protecting life and property when fires occur;

(*e*) regulating or abating offensive or dangerous trades or practices.

(*f*) removing obstructions and projections in public streets or places;

(*g*) securing or removing dangerous buildings or places and reclaiming unhealthy localities;

(*h*) acquiring and maintaining, changing and regulating places for the disposal of the dead;

(*i*) constructing, altering and maintaining public streets, culverts, municipal boundary-marks, markets, slaughter-houses, latrines, privies, urinals, drains, sewers drainage works, sewage works, baths, washing places, drinking fountains, tanks, wells, dams and the like;

(*j*) obtaining a supply or an additional supply of water, proper and sufficient for preventing danger to the health of the inhabitants from the insufficiency or un-wholesomeness of the existing supply when such supply or additional supply can be obtained at a reasonable cost;

(*k*) naming streets and numbering of premises;

(*l*) registering births and deaths;

(*m*) carrying out public vaccination;

(*n*) providing suitable accommodation for any calves, cows or buffaloes required within the municipal district for the supply of animal lymph;

(*o*) establishing and maintaining hospitals and dispensaries and providing medical relief;

(*p*) establishing and maintaining primary schools;

(*q*) printing such annual reports in the municipal administration of the district as the State Government by general or special orders requires the municipality to submit;

(*r*) paying the salary and the contingent expenditure on account of such police or guards as may be required by the municipality for the purposes of this Act or for the protection of any municipal property;

(s) disposing of night-soil and rubbish and, if so required by the State Government, preparing compost manure from such night-soil and rubbish;

(t) constructing and maintaining residential quarters for the conservancy staff of the municipality;

(u) providing special medical aid and accommodation for the sick in time of dangerous diseases; and taking such measures as may be required to prevent the outbreak of the epidemic or to suppress it and prevent its recurrence;

(v) giving relief and establishing and maintaining relief works in time of famine or scarcity to or for destitute persons; and

(w) paying for the maintenance and treatment of lunatics and lepers and persons affected by rabies.

Municipalities may, at their discretion, provide out of their funds for the following among others:—

(a) laying out new public streets;

(b) constructing, establishing or maintaining public parks gardens, libraries, museums, lunatic asylums, halls, offices, dharmashalas, rest-houses, homes for the disabled and destitute persons, and other public buildings;

(c) furthering educational objects.

(d) securing or assisting to secure suitable places for the carrying on of the offensive trades;

(e) establishing and maintaining a farm or a factory for the disposal of sewage;

(f) undertaking construction, purchase, organisation, maintenance, extension and arrangement of mechanically propelled transport facilities for the conveyance of the public;

(g) promoting the wellbeing of municipal employees and their dependants;

(h) providing accommodation for municipal employees and their dependants;

(i) constructing sanitary dwellings for the poorer classes; and

(j) undertaking any measure likely to promote the public safety, health, convenience or education.

Municipal taxation may embrace the following items:—

(i) a rate on buildings and lands;

(ii) a tax on all or any vehicles, boats, or animals used for riding, draught or burden;

(iii) a toll on vehicles (other than motor vehicles or trailers) and animals used as aforesaid;

(iv) an octroi on animals and goods;

(v) a tax on dogs;

(vi) a special sanitary cess upon private latrines; premises or compounds cleansed by the municipal agency;

(vii) a general sanitary cess for the construction and maintenance of public latrines, and for the removal and disposal of refuse;

(viii) a general water-rate or a special water-rate or both;

(ix) a lighting tax;

(x) a tax on pilgrims; and

(xi) any other tax authorised by the State Government.

Instead of (i), (vii), (viii) and (ix), a consolidated tax assessed as a rate on buildings or lands may be imposed.

The rules regulating the levy of taxes have to be sanctioned by the Commissioner, who has been given powers to subject the levy to such modifications not involving an increase of the amount to be imposed or to such conditions as to application of a party or whole of the proceeds of the tax to any purpose.

The State Government may raise objections to the levy of any particular tax which appears to it to be unfair in its incidence or obnoxious to the interest of the general public and suspend the levy of it until such time as the objections are removed. The State Government may require a municipality to impose taxes when it appears to it that the balance of the municipal fund is insufficient for meeting any cost incurred by any person acting under the directions of the Collector or of the Commissioner, for the execution of any work or the performance of any duties which the municipality is under an obligation to execute or perform but which it has failed to execute or perform.

Many of these taxes are levied by the municipalities but the rates at which they are levied do not enable them to meet all their expenditure. Their incomes have to be supplemented by numerous grants made by Government, both recurring and non-recurring. For instance, grants are made by Government to municipalities and hospitals, water-supply and drainage schemes, expenditure on control of epidemics, payment of dearness allowance to staff, etc. These grants add substantially to the municipal income.

Since the passing of the Bombay Primary Education Act (LXI of 1947), the control of the primary education has virtually been transferred from small municipalities and the District Local Board to the Sangli District School Board. The Primary Education Act divides municipalities into two categories, *viz.*, (1) those authorised to control all approved schools within their areas, and (2) those not so authorised. All smaller municipalities being non-authorised, have to pay over to the District School Board only 5 per cent of the rateable value of the properties in their areas as a contribution towards meeting the expenses on education. Since May 1, 1962 the District Local Board and the District School Board have been abolished and the subject of primary education has been transferred to the Zilla Parishad.

Control over the municipalities is exercised by the Collector, the Divisional Commissioner, and the State Government. The Collector has powers of entry and inspection in regard to any

CHAPTER 14. Local Self-Government. MUNICIPALITIES.

immovable property occupied by a municipality or any work in progress under it. He may also call for any books or documents in its possession or under its control. He may also require a municipality to take into its consideration any objection he has to any of its acts or information which he is able to furnish necessitating any action on its part. These powers are delegated by the Collector to the Assistant or the Deputy Collectors in charge of Prants.

The Commissioner has powers to order a municipality to suspend or prohibit, pending orders of the State Government, the execution of any of its order or resolution, if, in his opinion, it is likely to cause injury or annoyance to the public or to lead to a breach of peace or is unlawful. In cases of emergency, the Commissioner may provide for the execution of any works, or the doing of any act which a municipality is empowered to execute or do and the immediate execution or doing of which is necessary for the health or safety of the public and may direct that the expenses shall be forthwith paid by the municipality. Subject to appeal to the State Government, the Commissioner is also empowered to require a municipality to reduce the number of persons employed by it and also the remuneration assigned to any member of the staff. On the recommendation of a municipality. he can remove any councillor guilty of misconduct in the discharge of his duties.

When satisfied that a municipality has made a default in performing any statutory duty imposed on it, the State Government, may direct the Commissioner to fix a period for the performance of that duty and if that duty is not performed within the period stipulated, the Commissioner may appoint some person to perform it and direct that the expenses shall be forthwith paid by the municipality. If the State Government is of the view that any municipality is not competent to perform or persistently makes default in the performance of its duties or exceeds or abuses its powers, it may either dissolve the municipality or supersede it for a specific period. The president or the vice-president of a municipality may be removed by the State Government for misconduct or for neglect or incapacity in regard to the performance of his duties.

The audit of all local funds accounts is provided for under the Bombay Local Fund Audit Act (XXV of 1930). The Commissioner, on receipt of the report of the Chief Auditor, Local Funds Accounts, Bombay, may disallow any item of expenditure which appears to him to be contrary to law and surcharge the same on the person making or authorising the making of illegal payment. Appeal against the order may be made either to the District Court or to the State Government.

All the municipalities in this district are non-authorised municipalities within the meaning of section 2 (12) of the Bombay Primary Education Act, 1947 and every non-authorised municipality was required to pay annually to the District Local Board,

Sangli certain contribution towards primary education under section 41 of the Bombay Primary Education Act, 1947. Since the formation of the Zilla Parishad, all these municipalities have to pay this contribution to the Zilla Parishad, Sangli.

ZILLA PARISHAD Historical Background.

The establishment of the Zilla Parishad could be regarded as the culmination point in the achievement of the goal of Local Self-Government. Prior to that, local autonomy was enjoyed in different degrees at the district, taluka and village levels. The Local Self-Governing units were provided by the District Local Board and the village panchayats. The progress of these institutions was in three spheres since the achievement of independence by India. Firstly, from fully or partially nominated bodies, they have now become entirely elective. Secondly their franchise has gone on widening and has now reached the widest limit possible, *viz.*, universal adult franchise. Every person who (*a*) is a citizen of India, (*b*) has attained the age of 21 years, and (*c*) has the requisite residence, business premises or taxation qualification, is now entitled to be enrolled as a voter. Thirdly wider and wider powers have been gradually conferred upon the local bodies for the administration of areas under their charge of which the powers conferred upon the Zilla Parishad are the sufficient testimony thereof.

With the advent of independence, the principle of planned economic development was adopted and the community projects and national extension service schemes were introduced to realise that objective. However, the experience gained indicated that the progress of rural development was not commensurate with the expectations of the Government and it was attributed to the non-participation of the rural folk in the implementation of such developmental schemes. Under the circumstances the Central Government thought it necessary to investigate the causes behind such a state of affairs and appointed a committee called Balwantrai Mehta Committee.

The Balwantrai Mehta Committee undertook the study of the situation by visiting the developmental activities, by interviewing Government officials and social workers. The Committee pointed out mainly the failure of the Government in appealing and attracting the leadership of the masses in participating in the community and national development schemes. It also found that the institutions of the type of the Local Self-Government had not taken any interest in participating in such developmental schemes. The Committee came to the conclusion that the urgent necessity of the day to remedy the above state of affairs was the decentralisation of power and responsibility at the lower level. The Committee, therefore, suggested that the responsibility for such regional and local development should be assigned to such local institutions at the district level with the Government accepting the role of guiding, supervising and planning from a higher level, making available the required finances and so on.

CHAPTER 14. Local Self-Government. ZILLA PARISHAD. Historical Background.

The Balwantrai Mehta Committee recommended the formation of local committees on par with the Block Development Committees to be named as Panchayat Samitis and at the district level a District Committee to be called Zilla Parishad instead of the earlier Local Self-Governing institutions in order to secure integration in the various developmental activities.

Thus an Act to provide for the establishment in rural areas of Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis to assign to them Local Government functions and to entrust the execution of certain works and development schemes to such bodies and to provide for decentralisation of powers and functions and to promote development of democratic institutions securing a greater measure of participation by the people in the plans and in local and Government affairs, was passed in 1961, known as the Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961.

Thus now the Village Panchayat, the Panchayat Samiti and Zilla Parishad are the three responsible functionaries that are entrusted with the implementation of the developmental schemes

The Sangli Zilla Parishad started functioning on August 12, 1962[1]. The Zilla Parishad consists of 49 elected councillors, one woman councillor co-opted by the elected members of the Parishad and five Chairmen of the five co-operative societies in the district nominated by the Government.

Powers and Functions

The Zilla Parishad has to make reasonable provision within the district in respect of all or any of the activities (subjects enumerated in the first schedule as amended from time to time under sub-section (2) under the Act) and has to maintain works or development schemes in the district. The Zilla Parishad has to undertake any other work or measure that would promote health, safety, education, comfort, convenience or social, economic or cultural well-being of the inhabitants of the district and also preparation of annual and long-term plans in respect thereof. The following account briefly describes the organisation, powers and functions of the Zilla Parishad:—

(i) the Zilla Parishad has to carry out the directions given or orders issued from time to time by the State Government and has to provide adequate funds for purposes or measures to be undertaken towards the amelioration of the conditions of the scheduled castes, the scheduled tribes and any socially and educationally backward classes, and in the removal of untouchability;

(ii) the Zilla Parishad is authorised to incur any expenditure outside the district on any matter in relation to any of the purposes of this Act, such matter being of interest to the residents of the district;

(iii) the Zilla Parishad has to make adequate arrangements and provisions for payment to its Councillors, members of

[1] As per the provisions contained in section 9 of the Zilla Parishads and the Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961.

Powers and Functions.

Panchayat Samitis, and members of Standing Committee, Subjects Committees, and any other Committee, all expenses incurred in travelling for the purpose of business of the Zilla Parishad or as the case may be, of the Panchayat Samitis, in accordance with the rules made by the State Government in this behalf.

(iv) the Zilla Parishad may contribute to any fund sponsored by Government to meet any calamity affecting the public in any part of India;

(v) subject to the provisions of this Act, the Zilla Parishad may exercise general supervision and control over the work of the Chief Executive Officer;

(vi) the Zilla Parishad may compromise (vide section 105) in respect of any suit instituted by or against it or in respect of any claim or demand arising out of any contract entered into by or on behalf of it under this Act for such sum of money or other compensation as it shall deem sufficient;

(vii) the Zilla Parishad may pay compensation out of the District Fund to any person sustaining any damage by reason of the exercise, in good faith, of any of the powers vested in it, in its Committees or in Panchayat Samitis and in the Presiding authorities, officers and servants by or under this Act.

Duties during famine, etc.

Where the State Government, during any year, has declared any area as famine stricken or an area of acute scarcity, and has granted suspension or remission of land revenue, according to the scale prescribed by the State Government in this behalf, under the relevant Code or where distress is caused by floods or other natural calamities in any area, it shall be the duty of the Zilla Parishad having jurisdiction over the area, if so directed by the State Government, to undertake relief operations in such area either by the grant of gratuitous relief in the form of doles of money or through expenditure on such public works or such preventive or remedial measures as may be specified by the State Government in the direction (vide rule 107 of the Act).

Constitution of Committees.

As per provisions contained in section 78 of the Zilla Parishad and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961, the Zilla Parishad shall appoint a Standing Committee, and six Subjects Committees such as the Finance Committee, the Works Committee, the Agricultural Committee, the Co-operation Committee, the Education Committee and the Health Committee.

In view of the provisions contained in section 79 (i) of the said Act, the Standing Committee shall consist of—

(1) the President;

(2) the Chairman of the Subjects Committees;

(3) seven councillors elected by the Zilla Parishad from amongst its members, of whom not less than two shall be members from the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes or socially, educationally backward classes as far as possible; and

CHAPTER 14. Local Self-Government. ZILLA PARISHAD. Constitution of Committees.

(4) not more than two persons to be co-opted by the Parishad who shall be the associate members.

The members to be co-opted, shall be persons having special knowledge or experience in respect of any of the subjects allotted to the Standing Committee.

The President of the Zilla Parishad shall be the *ex-officio* Chairman of the Standing Committee. The Deputy Chief Executive Officer, acts as the *ex-officio* Secretary of the Standing Committee.

The President of the Zilla Parishad is the non-official head of the Zilla Parishad. He is paid an honorarium of Rs. 500 per month and provided with a bungalow and a vehicle. The Chief Executive Officer of the Zilla Parishad is its chief executive head.

The Vice-President of the Zilla Parishad is also paid an honorarium of Rs. 350 per month. The main powers and functions of the President and the Vice-President and the Chairman of the Standing Committee and Subjects Committees are detailed below.

President.

The President shall—

(*a*) convene, preside over and conduct meetings of the Zilla Parishad ;

(*b*) have access to the records of the Zilla Parishad ;

(*c*) discharge all duties imposed, and exercise all the powers conferred on him by or under the Act ;

(*d*) watch over the financial and executive administration of the Zilla Parishad and submit to the Zilla Parishad all questions connected therewith which shall appear to him to require its orders ; and

(*e*) exercise administrative supervision and control over the Chief Executive Officer for securing implementation of resolutions or decisions of the Zilla Parishad or of any Panchayat Samiti.

The President may in cases of emergency direct the execution or suspension or stoppage of any work or the doing of any act which requires the sanction of the Zilla Parishad or any authority thereof, and immediate execution or doing of which is in his opinion, necessary for the service or safety of the public, and may direct that the expense of executing such work or doing such act shall be paid from the District Fund:

Provided that, he shall report forthwith the action taken under this section, and the full reasons thereof to the Zilla Parishad, the Standing Committee and the appropriate Subjects Committee at their next meetings and the Zilla Parishad, or the Committee may amend or annul the direction made by the President.

Vice-President.

The Vice-President shall—

(*a*) in the absence of the President, preside at the meetings of the Zilla Parishad ;

CHAPTER 14. Local Self-Government. ZILLA PARISHAD. Vice-President.

(b) exercise such of the powers and perform such of the duties of the President as the President from time to time may, subject to the rules made by the State Government in this behalf, delegate to him by an order in writing; and

(c) pending the election of a President or during the absence of the President, exercise the powers and perform the duties of the President.

Chairman of Standing Committee or Subjects Committee.

Subject to the provisions of the Act, and the rules made thereunder by the State Government, the Chairman of the Standing Committee or a Subjects Committee shall—

(i) convene, preside over and conduct meetings of the Committee;

(ii) have access to the records of the Committee.

The Chairman of any such Committee may, in relation to subjects allotted to the Committee—

(i) call for any information, return, statement, account, or report from any officer employed by or holding office under the Zilla Parishad or any servant thereof; and

(ii) enter on and inspect any immovable property occupied by the Zilla Parishad or any institution under the control and management of the Zilla Parishad or any work or development scheme in progress undertaken by the Zilla Parishad or under its direction:

Provided that the Chairman of the Standing Committee may in relation to any subject allotted to any subjects Committee, also exercise the powers under this clause.

The Chairman of the Standing Committee may grant leave of absence for any period exceeding two months, but not exceeding four months, to any officer of Class I service (other than the Chief Executive Officer) or Class II Service holding office under the Zilla Parishad.

A Chief Executive Officer, a Deputy Chief Executive Officer, Block Development Officers and Heads of various departments of the Zilla Parishad are the executive officers of the Zilla Parishad. The Chief Executive Officer is of the rank of a Collector. The Deputy Chief Executive Officer is an officer of the rank of the Deputy Collector. The Block Development Officers are Class II Officers while the heads of the departments are either Class I or Class II Officers.

Chief Executive Officer.

The Chief Executive Officer—

(i) shall lay down the duties of all the officers and servants of or holding office under the Zilla Parishad in accordance with the rules made by the Government;

(ii) shall be entitled to call for any information, return, statement, account or report from any officer or servant of, or holding office under the Zilla Parishad;

CHAPTER 14. Local Self-Government. ZILLA PARISHAD. Chief Executive Officer.

(iii) shall supervise and control the execution of all the activities of the Zilla Parishad ;

(iv) shall have papers and documents connected with the proceedings of meetings of the Zilla Parishad and of its committees (excluding Panchayat Samitis);

(v) shall draw and disburse money out of District Fund ;

(vi) shall exercise supervision and control over the acts of the officers and servants holding office under the Zilla Parishad in matters of executive administration and those relating to accounts and records of the Zilla Parishad ;

(vii) shall be entitled to attend the meetings of the Zilla Parishad or any of its committees (including any Panchayat Samitis);

(viii) any of the powers conferred or duties or functions imposed upon or vested in the Chief Executive Officer by or under the Act, may also be exercised, performed or discharged under the control of the Chief Executive Officer and subject to such conditions and limitations, if any, as he may think fit to lay down, by any officer or servant holding office under the Zilla Parishad to whom the Chief Executive Officer generally or specially empowers by order in writing. All such orders of the Chief Executive Officer shall, however, be laid before the President, the Standing Committee and the relevant Subjects Committees for information :

(ix) he shall assess and give his opinion confidentially every year on the work of the Officers of Class I service and Class II service holding office under the Zilla Parishad ; forward them to such authorities as may be prescribed by the State Government and lay down the procedure for writing such reports about the work of officers and servants of Class III service and Class IV service under the Zilla Parishad.

Deputy Chief Executive Officer.

The Deputy Chief Executive Officer shall be the Secretary, *ex-officio* of the Zilla Parishad, as well as the Standing Committee[1].

Block Development Officer.

The Block Development Officer—

(i) shall have the custody of all papers and documents connected with the proceedings of meetings of the Panchayat Samitis ;

(ii) shall be the Secretary, *ex-officio*, of the Panchayat Samiti[2];

(iii) shall, subject to the general order of the Chief Executive Officer, grant leave of absence to an officer or servant of Class III service or Class IV service of the Zilla Parishad working under the Panchayat Samiti ;

(iv) shall call for any information, return, statement, account, report or explanation from any of the officers or servants working under the Panchayat Samiti ;

(v) shall draw and disburse money out of the grant or rents payable to the Panchayat Samiti under sections 185 and 188 ;

[1] Sections 9 and 79 of the Act.

[2] Section 57 of the Act.

(vi) shall in relation to works and development schemes to be undertaken from the block grants, exercise such powers of sanctioning acquisition of property, sale or transfer thereof, as may be specified by the State Government.

CHAPTER 14 — Local Self-Government. ZILLA PARISHAD. Heads of the Departments.

(i) Every head of the department of the Zilla Parishad may, in respect of works and development schemes pertaining to his department, accord technical sanction thereto.

(ii) He shall assess and give his opinion confidentially every year on the work of the officers of Class II service working in his department and shall forward them to the Chief Executive Officer.

(iii) The head of the department, specified in this behalf, shall be the Secretary, *ex-officio*, of such Subjects Committees as the Zilla Parishad may direct[1].

Administrative Organisation.

The Zilla Parishad has six Subjects Committees besides the Standing Committee. The Subjects Committees along with the department of the Zilla Parishad they control are as under—

Subject Committee	*Department Controlled*
Standing Committee ..	General Administration Department.
Finance Committee ..	Finance Department.
Education Committee ..	Education Department.
Co-operation Committee ..	Co-operation and Industries Department.
Agriculture Committee ..	Agriculture Department.
Works Committee ..	Works Department.
Health Committee ..	Public Health Department.

In what follows is given in brief the functioning of the various departments of the Zilla Parishad.

General Administration Department.

The General Administration department of the Zilla Parishad deals with matters such as establishment, planning, parishad audit, registry, revenue, village panchayat, social welfare and publicity, etc. The department is headed by the Deputy Chief Executive Officer of the Zilla Parishad who also acts as the Secretary of the Standing Committee.

Finance Department.

The Chief Accounts and Finance Officer of the Zilla Parishad is the Chief Executive Officer of the department who is also the Secretary to the Finance Committee. He is assisted by an Accounts Officer from the Maharashtra State Accounts Service, Class II. Every Zilla Parishad has to prepare its annual budget[2]. The Finance Department is responsible for the allocation of finance according to the budgetory grant and regulates the expenditure

[1] Section 80 of the Act.

[2] Under Clause 137 of the Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961.

CHAPTER 14. Local Self-Government. ZILLA PARISHAD. Finance Department.

according to the rules prescribed in this behalf. The inspection branch of the department audits the accounts of every panchayat samiti every three months. The funds of the former local bodies (now defunct) such as the District Local Board and the District School Board were taken over by the Finance Department. The Finance department is divided into four sections, *viz.*, audit, accounts, budget and stores.

The accounts of the Zilla Parishad are audited by an officer of the Local Fund Audit Department.

During 1962-63, the income of the Sangli Zilla Parishad was estimated at Rs. 82,62,526 and the expenditure at Rs. 1,45,26,399. The details regarding the income and expenditure were as follows:

Income

	Rupees
Government Help—	
Land Revenue Grant	13,74,932
Equalisation Grant	7,01,640
Establishment Grant	3,55,352
Deficit Grant	21,95,993
Plan Grant	9,54,877
Block Grant	19,14,266
Other Sources	
Local Fund Cess	3,60,101
Water Rate Cess	8,466
Other Taxes and Fees	13,857
Interest	4,840
Police	400
Education	2,75,817
Medical	19,300
Public Health	4,700
Agriculture	20,000
Animal Husbandry	200
Buildings and Communications	43,785
Miscellaneous	14,000
Total ..	82,62,526

Expenditure

(1) President, Chairman and Councillors ..	80,000
(2) General Administration	4,99,906
(3) Education	83,34,854
(4) Medical	65,305
(5) Public Health	3,35,652
(6) Ayurved	15,000
(7) Agriculture	2,77,811
(8) Animal Husbandry	1,05,151
(9) Forest	20,000

Expenditure—contd.

	Rupees
(10) Social Welfare	4,79,209
(11) Co-operation	21,944
(12) Industries	27,551
(13) Block expenditure	21,89,266
(14) Miscellaneous	5,000
(15) Works	14,89,081
(16) Public Health Engineering	55,550
(17) Irrigation	18,320
(18) Pension	1,87,000
(19) Miscellaneous	3,19,799
Total ..	1,45,26,399

Education Department.

The Education department is one of the major and important departments of the Zilla Parishad. The Educational Inspector designated as Parishad Education Officer acts as the Secretary of the Education Committee of the Zilla Parishad that controls the department. He is assisted in his work by Assistant District Educational Inspectors. The Education department owns 714 buildings of which 217 have been constructed by the District Buildings Committee at a cost of Rs. 23,59,099. During the year 1962-63, the Sangli Zilla Parishad spent Rs. 65,01,044 on primary education and Rs. 3,04,492 on aided schools. The district has 325 village libraries, 100 circulating libraries and 15 social education centres.

Co-operation and Industries Department.

The Co-operation and Industries Officer who is the Secretary of the Co-operation Committee of the Zilla Parishad heads the Co-operation and Industries department of the Zilla Parishad. The Co-operation and Industries Officer is assisted by one Co-operative Officer, One Assistant Co-operative Officer and other necessary staff.

The Co-operation and Industries department of the Zilla Parishad is entrusted with promotional and developmental activities with certain reservations in respect of municipal areas. The regulatory functions are still vested in department in the State sector. Besides, the department in the district sector also exercises general supervision and control over the agricultural produce market committees at Sangli, Tasgaon, Takari and Khanapur-Vita. During 1962-63, the department disbursed Rs. 17,000 as financial assistance to industrial co-operatives. The technical supervision and control over the Carpentry and Smithy School, Tasgaon, and the Fibre Works School, Jath, placed under the respective Block Development Officers, vests in the Co-operation and Industries department. Under the scheme of loans to individual artisans for small-scale and cottage industries, the Zilla Parishad disbursed an amount of Rs. 49,558 as loan and Rs. 1,027 as subsidy to 71 individuals.

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ZILLA PARISHAD.

Co-operation and Industries Department.

A cluster-type training centre has been established on grant-in-aid basis through the Vidhayak Karya Samiti. The training centre imparts training in turning, fitting, moulding and pattern-making. A co-operative dairy known as the Krishna Khore Sahakari Dudh Utpadak Puravatha Sangh Ltd., Sangli, has an operational area composed of Miraj, Tasgaon and Walwa talukas of Sangli district and Shirol taluka of Kolhapur district. The Society is expected to work as a trader unit to the Government Milk Scheme at Miraj by supplying the milk collected from the various co-operative dairy societies. Two co-operative institutions have been registered at Kavalapur in Miraj taluka and Bavachi in Walwa taluka for undertaking marketing of vegetables. The members of the society are expected to undertake intensive cultivation of vegetables through improved methods of cultivation and use of fertilizers. The Groundnut Producers' Co-operative Society with Sangli district as a whole as its operational area has established a solvent extraction plant with a capacity to crush 50 tons of groundnut cake per day. Of the proposed 29 co-operative oil-mills for working as traders to the solvent extraction plant, 20 have been registered and two have gone into actual production. A co-operative ginning society has been registered at Atpadi in Khanapur taluka.

Agriculture Department.

The District Agricultural Officer is the head of the department in the district and has to act as the Secretary to the Agriculture Committee of the Zilla Parishad which controls the work of the department in the district. The animal husbandry activities in the district are also under the control of the Agriculture department. However, the actual control in these matters vests in the District Animal Husbandry Officer.

The Zilla Parishad has completed the work of embankment in respect of 101,981 hectares (252,000 acres). The work still remains to be completed in respect of 252,119 hectares (623,000 acres), and is expected to be completed by the end of the Fourth Five-Year Plan. During 1962-63 and 1963-64 the Zilla Parishad disbursed Rs. 60 lakhs every year as loans. The Zilla Parishad also undertook the distribution of fertilizers. The quantity of fertilizers distributed by the Zilla Parishad during 1962-63, 1963-64 and 1964-65 is given below categorywise:—

Type of Fertilizer	*Quantity distributed*		
	1962-63	1963-64	1964-65
Ammonium Sulphate ..	4,435	7,495	2,602·660
Nitrate	205	460	1,303·660
Urea	796	2,419	1,303·534
Calcium Ammonium Nitrate	161	567	814·000
Nitro Phosphet	..	156	247·237

During 1960-61, there were 85 centres distributing fertilizers. The number rose to 130 in 1964.

The Zilla Parishad has selected four centres *viz.*, Mhaishal, Kawathe Mahankal, Kavalapur and Dhamni (*Inam*) where an improved variety of groundnut seed cultivation in Karad 4-11 has been utilized for 9,712.5 hectares (24,000 acres). The Zilla Parishad has recommended to the Government production in 48,562.3 hectares (1,20,000 acres). The package programme will chiefly assist the supply of improved variety of seed and crop protection. The programme of the summer crop had been raised from 141.6 hectares (350 acres) to 607 hectares (1,500 acres) by 1963-64.

The Zilla Parishad has also undertaken the programme for the improvement of the supply of cash crops like grapes, long staple cotton and plantains. The Zilla Parishad intends to increase the area under these crops.

The Zilla Parishad has played a vital role in the establishment of two vegetable cultivators' co-operative societies, one each at Kavalapur in Miraj taluka and Bavchi in Walwa taluka. These societies undertake cultivation of vegetables on 161.874 hectares (400 acres). The Zilla Parishad supplied these societies improved seeds from the seed centre. These societies have secured financial assistance from the Government also.

Though ten tractors, six bull-dozers, three blasting machines and two boring machines are under the control of the Agriculture department under the State sector, the Zilla Parishad assists the agriculturists in securing similar equipment. The improved seed production centres at Kupwad, Digraj, Tasgaon, Jath, Bevur, Peth, Vita produced 3,873.13 quintals of improved variety of seeds. During 1964-65, the Zilla Parishad distributed improved variety of seeds of *Rabi Jowar,* 57,500 kg.; of wheat, 11,102 kg.; and of *harbhara,* 8,286 kg.

With a view to giving incentive to agriculturists, crop competitions are held at taluka level and district level. The Zilla Parishad distributed an amount of Rs. 58,000 as prizes in 1962-63 and Rs. 3,325 in 1963-64. The Zilla Parishad has given 480 improved agricultural implements to various village panchayats for demonstrations. During 1964-65 financial assistance was given to agriculturists for the purchase of 253 iron ploughs. For the proper stocking and storing of agricultural implements, improvise seeds, fertilizers etc., godowns have been constructed at Tasgaon, Sangli, Vita and Miraj. Construction of godowns at Shirala, Walwa and Jath is in progress. During the Vanamahotsava in 1963-64, 371,295 trees were planted. The Zilla Parishad conducts the agricultural school at Digras.

Besides, the work done by the department in the district sector, the Zilla Parishad has to assist the schemes in the State sector as well.

The work regarding treatment of animals, vaccination of animals against various contagious diseases of live-stock and breeding of animals is carried out by the Animal Husbandry section of the

CHAPTER 14. Local Self-Government. ZILLA PARISHAD. Agriculture Department.

Agriculture department of the Zilla Parishad. Specialised technical guidance and supervision are provided by the Animal Husbandry department in the State sector.

The section is headed by the District Animal Husbandry Officer, Sangli. He is assisted in his work by the necessary staff. The veterinary dispensaries in the district are situated at Sangli, Miraj, Vita, Tasgaon, Jath, Shirala, Ashta and Kawathe Mahankal. The veterinary aid centres are located at Atpadi, Mahuli, Kadegaon, Khanapur, Alsund, Manerajuri, Hatnoor, Savlaj, Palus, Bhilawadi, Erandoli, Kavthe-Piran, Dhalgaon, Salgar, Soni, Sankh, Dafalapur, Charan and Mangle.

Works Department.

The Works department of the Zilla Parishad is under the control of the Works Committee of the Zilla Parishad and is headed by the Parishad Executive Engineer who also acts as the secretary to the Works Committee. The Parishad Executive Engineer is assisted in his work by the Deputy Engineer, Overseers, Sub-Overseers and other necessary technical and ministerial staff. Of the six Deputy Engineers, one looks after the minor irrigation scheme and piped water supply. The Zilla Parishad has the necessary mechanised equipment. The repairs to the equipment are carried out in the mechanical section.

The Works department of the Zilla Parishad deals with the works connected with major district roads, other district roads and village roads, the construction and maintenance of National Highways and State Highways being the responsibility of the Buildings and Communications Department in the State sector. During 1964-65, the Zilla Parishad spent Rs. 2,09,523 on major district roads measuring 837.18 km (524.20 miles), Rs. 1,15,016 on other district roads measuring 450.94 km. (280.20 miles) and Rs. 48,758 on village roads admeasuring 1454.91 km. (904.04 miles). Besides these, the department has undertaken construction of various village roads and approach roads. The construction of the bridge at Shigaon estimated to cost Rs. eight lakhs has also started along with other constructions under the State Road Fund. During 1964-65, the Zilla Parished maintained three ferries each at Aitavade, Chikurde, Rethare and Harnaksh; two ferries each at Miraj, Walwa, Takari, Kopadewadi, Sagaon and Kandur; and one at Dharli and incurred an expenditure of Rs. 4,414 towards their maintenance.

In 1964-65, the construction of three veterinary dispensaries, staff quarters, two primary health centres and an agricultural school was undertaken under the Third Five-Year Plan at an estimated cost of Rs. 1,41,863. Most of the work has been completed. During the same year the Zilla Parishad spent Rs. 2,38,269 on the maintenance of its buildings. Construction of 76 rooms of schools in 18 villages was undertaken at an estimated cost of Rs. 1,19,696 and Rs. 15,000 were sanctioned for the repairs of the remaining school buildings. The construction of the building of the Zilla Parishad was undertaken at an estimated cost of Rs. six

lakhs. Besides these the department undertook various construction works under other schemes such as piped water supply scheme, community development scheme and rural housing scheme, *etc*.

ZILLA PARISHAD. Health Department.

The health matters of the district which were formerly looked after by the Public Health Department and the Medical department of the State Government are, with the formation of the Zilla Parishad, looked after by the Public Health Department of the Zilla Parishad. The Civil Surgeon now looks after the work connected with the General Hospital, Sangli and maintenance of health standards in the urban areas. The Public Health department of the Zilla Parishad is headed by the Public Health Officer of the Zilla Parishad.

The main functions of the Public Health department of the Zilla Parishad relate to the control and eradication of epidemic diseases. The work of vaccination is done in the district by 19 vaccinators and two sanitary inspectors.

There are eight primary health centres in the district along with 6 allopathic and 27 ayurvedic dispensaries maintained by the Sangli Zilla Parishad. The only maternity and child welfare centre is located at Jath. The Medical Officer at the primary health centre has both to attend the dispensary as also to supervise the working of the sub-centres. The responsibility for the development of maternal and child health services devolves on the health visitor or on the nurse midwife attached to the centre.

The work connected with the family planning has been transferred to the Zilla Parishad on agency basis. There are six family planning centres in the district. These centres popularise modern ways and means of family planning and organise vasectomy and tubectomy operation camps. The family planning centres also undertake propaganda in respect of family planning.

PANCHAYAT SAMITIS.

Six Panchayat Samitis have been established in Sangli district with their headquarters at Walwa, Shirala, Tasgaon, Khanapur, Jath and Miraj. Every Panchayat Samiti consists of the following members:—

(*a*) All councillors who are elected on the Zilla Parishad from the electoral divisions in the block.

(*b*) The co-opted councillors of the Zilla Parishad residing in the block.

(*c*) The Chairman of such co-operative societies conducting the business of purchase and sale of agricultural products in the block as nominated by Government (to be associate members).

(*d*) The Chairman of a co-operative society conducting business relating to agriculture (not being a society falling under 'C' above) in the block co-opted by the Panchayat Samiti (to be an associate member).

(*e*) In case of non-availability of a woman member or a member belonging to the scheduled castes or the scheduled tribes, one member who is a regular resident in the block, to be co-opted by the Panchayat Samiti.

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PANCHAYAT SAMITIS.

(f) *Sarpanchas* elected by the members of the village panchayats.

Chairman.

The term of the office of the Chairman and members of the respective Panchayat Samitis is co-terminous.[1]

The Chairmen of the Panchayat Samitis are paid an honorarium of Rs. 300 with the facilities of free residential accommodation.[2] The Deputy Chairman of the Panchayat Samiti is paid an honorarium of Rs. 150.[3] The elections of Sarpanchas (under clause "f" of section 57 of the Zilla Parishad Act) were held under the secret ballot system.

VILLAGE PANCHAYATS.

Village Panchayats form local units of administration for villages under the Bombay Village Panchayats Act, 1958 (Bombay Act No. III of 1959). In every local area which has a population of not less than 500 a panchayat has to be established. It is also permissible for the State, if sufficient reasons exist, to direct the establishment of a panchayat in a local area having a population of 250 and above but less than 2,000.

Constitution

The maximum number of members for a panchayat is fifteen and the minimum is seven. The members are elected on the basis of adult franchise. The State Government have been empowered under the constitution to reserve seats (in joint electorate) for the representation of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, unless Government are of opinion that the reservation is not necessary having regard to the population in the village of such castes and tribes. In every panchayat two seats shall be reserved for women. The term of office of panchayat is for four years which is extendable up to five years by the Collector if and when occasion demands such extension. Every panchayat has to elect a *Sarpanch* and a *Up-sarpanch* from amongst its members. The *Sarpanch* presides over the Panchayat and is also the executive officer of the panchayat. Every village panchayat or group of panchayats has a Secretary. With the Samitis Act 1961, the Village Panchayat Secretaries have become Zilla Parishad servants and are at present designated as Assistant *Gram Sevaks*. They are the full time servants and their appointments are made on time scale basis.

Functions.

The State Government makes every year a grant to every panchayat equivalent to 30 per cent of the ordinary land revenue realised in the preceding year within the limits of the village. The State Government has also levied a cess at the rate of 25 paise[4] on every rupee of every sum payable to the State Government as ordinary land revenue in the area within the jurisdiction of a panchayat and the collection of the above cess will be transferred to the panchayat: then the panchayat shall be entitled to an equalisation grant equal to the difference between 30 per cent of land

[1] *Vide* Section 59 of the Zilla Parishad Act.
[2] *Vide* Section 68 of the Act.
[3] *Vide* Section 69 of the Act.
[4] Under Section 127 of the Village Panchayat Act.

revenue grant and the amount arrived at on the basis of population of 1961 census equivalent to one rupee per head.

CHAPTER 14. Local Self-Government. VILLAGE PANCHAYATS. Functions.

Section 45 of the Bombay Village Panchayat Act, 1958 lays down that so far as the village funds at its disposal will allow and subject to the general control of the Zilla Parishad, it shall be the duty of a panchayat to make reasonable provisions within the village in regard to the following matters:—

In the sphere of sanitation and health.—Supply of water, cleansing roads, sanitation and preservation and maintenance of public health, maintaining and regulating cremation and burial grounds, village layouts, provision of facilities such as garden, parks, welfare centres and providing medical relief.

In the sphere of public works.—Removing of obstructions in public places, construction and maintenance of roads, drains, public buildings, *dharmashalas*, markets, slaughter houses, cattle pounds, regulation and use of grazing and forest lands, tanks and wells, control of fairs and bazars, provision of employment in times of scarcity, water supply to animals, etc.

In the sphere of education and culture.—Establishment and maintenance of *akhadas*, theatres, libraries and promotion of social and moral welfare by means of promoting prohibition, removing untouchability, eradicating corruption and discouraging gambling.

In the sphere of self defence and village defence.—Watch and Ward, regulating and checking offensive or dangerous trades, extinguishing fires, etc.

In the sphere of administration.—Numbering of premises, drawing up programmes for increasing agricultural and non-agricultural output, preparation of statement showing financial requirements for developmental purposes, control of cattle stands, threshing floors, grazing grounds and community lands, regulation of fairs and festivals, prepartion and maintenance of panchayat records, registration of births, deaths and marriages, preparation of village development plans, etc.

In the sphere of welfare of people.—Implementation of land reform schemes, relief to disabled, assistance to residents, making arrangement for co-operative and collective farming, organising credit and multipurpose co-operative societies, reclamation of agricultural waste lands, organising voluntary labour and opening of fair price shops.

In the sphere of agriculture and preservation of forest.—Establishment of model farms and granaries, bringing fallow and waste land under agriculture, establishment of nurseries for improved seeds, preparing compost and conserving manurial resources, crop protection experiments, minor irrigation works and preservation and improvement of forests, breeding and protecting cattle. promotion, and encouragement of cottage and village industries.

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VILLAGE PANCHAYATS.

Functions.

In the sphere of the collection of land revenue.—The village panchayat has to undertake collection of land revenue under section 169 and maintenance of village records relating to land revenue in such manner and such forms as may be prescribed from time to time by or under any law relating to land revenue.

A panchayat may with the previous sanction of the President of the Zilla Parishad, also make provision for carrying out outside the village any work of the nature specified in sub-section (1).

A panchayat may also make provision for carrying out within the village any other work or measure which is likely to promote the health, safety, education, comfort, convenience, or social or economic or cultural well-being of the inhabitants of the village.

A panchayat may by resolution passed at its meeting and supported by two-thirds of the total number of its members make provision for any public reception, ceremony, or entertainment within the village or may make contribution towards an annual gathering or such other gathering of panchayats in the district or the State—

Provided that with the previous sanction of the Chairman of the Panchayat Samiti, the panchayat shall not incur expenditure exceeding Rupees fifteen on any such reception, ceremony, entertainment or gathering.

If it comes to the notice of a panchayat that on account of the neglect of a land holder or dispute between him and his tenant the cultivation of his estate has seriously suffered, the panchayat may bring such fact to the notice of the Collector.

A panchayat shall in regard to the measures for the amelioration of the condition of scheduled castes and scheduled tribes and other backward classes and in particular, in the removal of untouchability, carry out directions or orders given or issued in this regard from time to time by the State Government, the Collector or any officer authorised by the Collector. A panchayat shall perform such other duties and functions as are entrusted to it by any other law for the time being in force.

Taxation.

Under Section 124 of the Bombay Village Panchayat Act, 1958, every panchayat is under an obligation to levy a house tax and a tax on lands not subject to payment of agricultural assessment at such rates as may be decided by it (but subject to the minimum and maximum rates which may be fixed by the State Government) and in such manner subject to such exemptions as may be prescribed, namely:—

(i) a tax on building (whether subject to payment of agricultural assessment or not) and lands (which are not subject to payment of agricultural assessment) within the limits of the village:

(ii) octroi;

(iii) a pilgrim tax;

(iv) a tax on fairs, festivals and other entertainments;

CHAPTER 14. Local Self-Government. VILLAGE PANCHAYATS. Taxation.

(v) a tax on bicycles and on vehicles drawn by animals;

(vi) subject to the provisions of article 276 of the Constitution, a tax on the following professions, trades, callings or employments, that is to say—

(*a*) shop keeping and hotel keeping,

(*b*) any trade or calling (other than agriculture) which is carried on with the help of machinery run by steam, oil or electric power or by manual labour, and

(c) the profession or calling of brokers in cattle markets;

(vii) a general sanitary cess for the construction or maintenance, or both, of public latrines and for the removal and disposal of refuse;

(viii) a general water rate which may be imposed in the form of rate assessed on buildings and lands or in any other form as may be best adapted to the circumstances of any class of cases.

(ix) any other tax (not being a toll on motor vehicles or trailers, save as provided by section 14 of the Bombay Motor Vehicles Tax Act, 1935) which the State Legislature has, under the Constitution, power to impose in the State and which has been sanctioned by the State Government;

(x) a fee on markets and weekly bazars;

(xi) a fee on cart-stands and tonga-stands;

(xii) a special water rate for water supplied by the panchayat through pipes, which may be imposed in any form including that of charges for such water supplied, fixed in such mode or modes as shall be best adapted in the circumstances of any class of cases;

(xiii) a fee for the supply of water from wells and tanks owned by it, for purposes other than domestic use and for cattle;

(xiv) a fee for temporary erection on, or putting up projections over, or temporary occupation of any public street or place;

(xv) a special sanitary cess upon private latrines, premises or compounds cleansed by the panchayat agency;

(xvi) a fee for cleansing a cess pool constructed on land whether belonging to panchayat or not;

(xvii) a fee for grazing cattle on grazing lands vesting in a panchayat;

(2) The tax on buildings or lands referred to in clause (i) of sub-section (1) shall be leviable from the owners or occupiers thereof:

Provided that when an owner of a building or land has left the village or cannot otherwise be found, any person to whom such building or land has been transferred shall be liable for the tax leviable from the owner.

(3) The State Government may, by notification in the official Gazette direct that the tax upon buildings or lands referred to in clause (i) of sub-section (1) shall not be levied on all buildings and

CHAPTER 14. Local Self-Government. VILLAGE PANCHAYATS. Taxation.

lands or on any class of buildings or lands situated in an area predominantly populated by members of scheduled castes or scheduled tribes.

(4) Notwithstanding anything contained in sub-section (1) where a tax on professions, trades, or callings and employments has been imposed by any Zilla Parishad under the provision of any law for the time being in force in the district including the area within the limits of a panchayat, it shall not be lawful for that panchayat so long as the tax is being so imposed to levy any such tax within such limit.

(5) Any person aggrieved by the assessment, levy or imposition of any tax or fee may appeal to the panchayat samiti. The decision of the Panchayat Samiti thereon shall be final.

(6) The State Government may suspend the levy or imposition of any tax or fee and may at any time rescind such suspension.

Section 128 of the Bombay Village Panchayat Act, 1958 gives the panchayat samiti power to compel a panchayat to levy or increase any of the taxes or fees specified if it appears to the panchayat samiti that the regular income of the panchayat falls below what is necessary for the proper discharge of the obligatory duties of the panchayat.

Control over Panchayats.

Powers of control over panchayats are given to the Zilla Parishad and to the Collector. Both have concurrent powers to call for information and to compel the panchayat to take into consideration any objection they have to any act of the panchayat, either of commission or of omission, of any information which necessitates the commission of any act by panchayat. The Standing Committee of Zilla Parishad can also compel the panchayat to reduce the number of the staff maintained by it or the remuneration paid to them. In addition the Standing Committee has powers of suspension and prohibition in respect of execution of any order or resolution of a panchayat which in its opinion, is likely to cause injury or annoyance to the public or to lead to a breach of the peace. In cases of emergency the Standing Committee may also provide for the execution of any work or the doing of any act which a panchayat is empowered to execute or to do, and the immediate execution or doing of which is, in their opinion, necessary for the health or safety of the public, and may direct that the expenses shall be forthwith paid by the panchayat.

The Collector is authorised to carry out each year the audit of the accounts of a panchayat and forward a copy of the Audit Note to the Zilla Parishad and Panchayat Samiti. If it appears to the Collector that a panchayat has made default in the performance of its obligatory duties, he may order the duty to be performed within a specified period, and if the duty is not performed within that period, the Collector can appoint some person to perform it and direct that the expenses be paid by the defaulting panchayat.

VILLAGE PANCHAYATS.

Control over Panchayats.

The State Government also is given powers to carry out at the cost of the panchayat any of the panchayat's obligatory duties when it appears to it that the panchayat samiti has neglected to take action. The State Government after consultation with the Zilla Parishad can dissolve or supersede a panchayat, if, in its opinion, the panchayat had exceeded or abused its powers or made persistent default in the performance of its obligatory duties, or persistently disobeyed any of the orders of the Standing Committee. If a panchayat is superseded, all its powers and duties will be exercised and performed by a person or persons appointed by the State Government.

In pursuance of a resolution, dated the 5th June 1962, Government have appointed in the Sangli district, an administrative Officer in the grade of Deputy Collector, who has been entrusted with the duties of the District Village Panchayat Officer for the development of village panchayats on sound and proper lines.

An Annual Administration Report on the working of the village panchayats has to be prepared by the Chief Executive Officer of the Zilla Parishad and submitted to the Commissioner before the 31st May and within one month thereafter the Commissioner has to forward that report to the Government. With the introduction of the Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samities Act, 1961, an integrated system of Panchayati Raj has come into existence. A village panchayat at the village level is now the basic unit of Panchayati Raj.

Nyaya Panchayats.

As per section 63 of the Bombay Village Panchayat Act, 1958, there shall be a *nyaya panchayat* for the administration of civil and criminal justice in a group of not less than 5 villages as the State Government may by notification in the official Gazette determine. A *nyaya panchayat* shall be known by such name as may be specified in the notification. Unlike other local self-governing units, every group of village panchayats is empowered to constitute a body called *nyaya panchayat*. It shall consist of one person elected by each panchayat (from amongst it members) in the prescribed manner and one person from the *gramsabha*. It elects its Chairman from among its members and its term of office is co-extensive with that of the panchayat. The State Government have powers to remove any member of the *nyaya panchayat*, for reasons of misconduct in the discharge of his duties, or any disgraceful conduct, or for neglect, refusal or incapacity in regard to the performance of his duties.

The Secretary of the panchayat acts as the judicial clerk of the *nyaya panchayat*. Conviction by a *nyaya panchayat* is not deemed to be previous conviction for the purposes of the Indian Penal Code.

As per section 73 of the Bombay Village Panchayats Act, 1958, the *nyaya panchayat* shall—(i) try civil suits not affecting any interest in immoveable property up to the value of Rs. 25 and with the consent of the parties, up to the value of Rs. 100.

CHAPTER 14. Local Self-Government. VILLAGE PANCHAYATS. Nyaya Panchayats.

(ii) shall take cognizance of and try all or any of the following offenders, namely:—

(*a*) Under the Indian Penal Code—

	Section
Negligently doing any act known to be likely to spread the infection of any disease dangerous to life.	269
Polluting the water of public spring or reservoir ..	277
Causing danger, obstruction or injury to any person in any public place.	283
Voluntarily causing hurt	323
Assault or use of criminal force otherwise than on grave and sudden provocation.	358
Theft where the value of the property stolen does not exceed Rs. 20.	379
Mischief when the loss or damage caused does not exceed Rs. 20 in value.	426
Criminal trespass	447
House trespass	448
Dishonestly breaking upon or unfastening any closed receptacle, containing or supposed to contain property.	461
Intentional insult with intent to provoke a breach of peace.	504
Criminal intimidation and misconduct in public by drunken person.	506

(*b*) (1) Under the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals Act, 1890, in its application to (i) the pre-reorganisation State of Bombay excluding the transferred territories (ii) the Vidarbha region of the State of Bombay and (iii) the Saurashtra and Kutch areas of the former State of Bombay—

	Section
Killing animals with unnecessary cruelty	5
Being in possession of the skin of a goat killed with unnecessary cruelty.	5-A
Employing animals unfit for labour	6
Baiting or inciting animals to fight	6-C
Permitting diseased animals to go at large or to die in public places.	7

(2) Under the prevention of cruelty to Animals Act, 1313 Fasli, killing or treating animals with unnecessary cruelty.	3 and 4
Employing animals unfit for work	5

	Section
Baiting or inciting animals to fight	5-A
Permitting diseased animals to go at large or to die in public places.	5-B

(c) (1) Under the Bombay District Vaccination Act, 1892, and that Act in its application to the Saurashtra and Kutch areas of the former State of Bombay—

Inoculating, entering a vaccination area after inoculation and bringing person inoculated into such area.	22
Disobedience of order of the Magistrate for the vaccination of any unprotected child under 14 years.	23
Not producing for being vaccinated	24
Neglecting to take child to be vaccinated	25

(2) Under the Vaccination Act, 1880 in its application to the Vidarbha region of the State of Bombay—

Inoculating and entering a vaccination area after inoculation.	6
Disobedience of order of Magistrate for vaccination without just cause or excuse.	18

(3) Under the Hyderabad Vaccination Act, 1951—

Failure to get a child vaccinated or revaccinated after unsuccessful vaccination.	3, 7 and 15 (1)
Continuing for a month the neglect or default of order.	15 and 17 (2)

(d) (1) Under the Bombay Primary Education Act, 1497—

Failure to cause child to attend approved school ..	35
Employing child liable for compulsory education ..	36

(2) Under the Madhya Pradesh Primary Education Act, 1956—

Failure to cause a child to attend school	12
Employment of children	16

(3) Under the Hyderabad Compulsory Primary Education Act, 1952—

Failure to cause a child to attend school	6

(4) Under the Saurashtra Primary Education Act, 1956—

Failure to cause a child to attend approved school ..	29
Employing child liable for compulsory education ..	30

(e) Under this Act—

(i) Erecting or re-erecting, etc., any building without permission.	52
(ii) Obstructions and encroachments upon public streets, grazing lands and open sites.	53

CHAPTER 14. Local Self-Government. VILLAGE PANCHAYATS. Nyaya Panchayats.

		Section
(iii)	Destruction or defacement of any number or sub-number of premises or part thereof.	54
(iv)	Contravention of a rule	176
(v)	Contravention of a by-law	177

(*f*) Such compoundable offence under any law for the time being in force as the State Government may specify in this behalf by a notification published in the Official Gazette :

Provided that no offence of theft shall be cognizable by any Nyaya Panchayat unless an accused person has been apprehended or recognised and named.

Pleaders, Vakils, etc., are not permitted to appear on behalf of any party in any suit or case before Nyaya Panchayat. Appeals are allowed to the District Court in Civil suits and to the Sessions Court in criminal cases.

TOWN PLANNING AND VALUATION DEPARTMENT.

TOWN PLANNING AND VALUATION. The Maharashtra State has an independent Town Planning and Valuation Department under the administrative control of the Urban Development and Public Health Department. This Department came into existence in the year 1914 with the Consulting Surveyor to Government (now designated as "Director of Town Planning") as its head. The department as its name indicates, principally deals with two important subjects, *viz.*, 'Town Planning' and 'Valuation of Real Property'.

Functions. The duties and functions of this department as stipulated by Government are as under:—

Town Planning—

(1) Educating the municipalities regarding the advantages of town planning and preparation of development plans and town planning schemes under the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1954.

(2) Advising the municipalities in the selection of suitable areas for preparation of town planning schemes.

(3) Giving the required assistance to the municipalities in the preparation of development plans and town planning schemes in the shape of advice as well as loan of the services of technical assistants for the preparation of development plans, draft town planning schemes, etc.

(4) Performing the duties of the town planning officers when so appointed by Government, to scrutinise building permission cases, to tender advice to the Board of Appeal and to draw up the final schemes.

(5) Issuing Certificates of Tenure and Title to the owners of lands included in the town planning schemes.

(6) Advising Government on all matters regarding town and country planning including legislation.

CHAPTER 14. Local Self-Government. TOWN PLANNING AND VALUATION. Functions.

(7) Advising and preparing town development, improvement extension and slum clearance schemes under the municipal Acts.

(8) Preparing development schemes or layouts of land—

(i) belonging to Government, and

(ii) belonging to co-operative housing societies and private bodies with the sanction of the Government.

(9) Tendering advise to the officers concerned in respect of village planning and preparation of layouts for model villages, etc.

(10) Advising Government on housing, slum clearance, regional planning and prevention of ribbon development including legislation.

(11) Preparing type designs for the housing of the middle and poorer classes including Harijans.

(12) Scrutinising miscellaneous building permission cases and layouts received from the Collectors and to recommend suitable building regulations for adoption in the areas concerned.

Valuation.—The Director of Town Planning is the chief expert adviser of Government on the subject and his duties under this heading include—

(i) valuation of agricultural and non-agricultural lands and properties in towns and villages belonging to the Government and intended for the purpose of sale or lease;

(ii) valuation of Government properties for purposes of rating under the Municipal Acts;

(iii) valuations for miscellaneous purposes such as cantonment leases, probate on stamp duty, etc.;

(iv) valuations for the purposes of fixing standard rates of non-agricultural assessment and prescribing zones of values in all villages and rising localities in the vicinity of important and growing towns;

(v) valuations for the purposes of fixing standard table of ground rents and land values in respect of lands in cantonments;

(vi) scrutiny of awards of compensation (if and when received from the Government);

(vii) supplying trained technical assistants to do duty as special land acquisition officers in important towns where the land acquisition work is of a very important and responsible nature;

(viii) giving expert evidence when called upon to do so in the District Courts and High Court when appeals are lodged against awards of compensation under the Land Acquisition Act:

CHAPTER 14. Local Self-Government. TOWN PLANNING AND VALUATION. Functions.

(ix) undertaking valuation work on behalf of Railways and other departments of the Central Government and private bodies with the sanction of Government on payment of fees, etc.

Other Duties—

(1) To advise the various heads of departments of Government in the selection of sites required for public purpose.

(2) To see that all town planning schemes or layouts schemes sanctioned by Government are properly executed within a reasonable period or periods fixed in the schemes.

(3) To advise Government as regards interpretation, amendment or addition to the Bombay Town Planning Act, or Rules thereunder.

Organisation

The department as stated above was started in the year 1914 with the Consulting Surveyor to Government (now designated as "Director of Town Planning") as its head who was later on given the assistance of one Assistant Consulting Surveyor to Government (now designated Deputy Director of Town Planning), one Deputy Assistant Consulting Surveyor to Government (now designated as Assistant Director of Town Planning), and two Senior Assistants (now designated as "Town Planner") with the requisite staff. As the activities of the department increased, these Assistants had to be posted at prominent places in the State to attend to the work of town and country planning essentially required in and around these towns and cities. There has been tremendous increase in the activities of the department in recent years with the consequential increase in the number of branch offices in the State. The head office of the department is in Poona with branch offices in Bombay, Kolhapur, Nagpur, Amravati, Aurangabad, Jalgaon, Kalyan, Sholapur and Satara. Some of the officers have been appointed to function as the Land Acquisition Officers. There are three full-time Special Land Acquisition Officers in Poona and one full-time Land Acquisition Officer in Bombay in addition to two partime Land Acquisition Officers in Bombay and in Poona.

The statutory powers regarding planning were embodied under the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1915, which was in force so far in the State. This Act has been replaced by the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1954 which is in force from April 1, 1957. The new Act generally incorporates the provisions of the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1915 and in addition makes obligatory on every local authority (barring village panchayats) to prepare a development plan for the entire area within its jurisdiction. The development plan aims at the improvement of existing congested *gaothan* portion of the town and contains proposals in respect of the outlying open areas so as to guide the development on planned basis. The proposals of the development plan can be implemented by the preparation of statutory town planning schemes. In preparing town planning schemes, the planner can ignore to a great extent the existing plot boundaries. In designing his layout the existing holdings can be reconstituted and made subservient to the plans

and building plots of good shape and frontage can be allotted to the owners of lands ill-shaped for building purposes and without access. The cost of a scheme can be recovered from the owners benefited to the extent of 50 per cent of the increase in the value of the land estimated to accrue by the carrying out of the works contemplated in the scheme. When a draft town planning scheme prepared by a local authority in consultation with the owners is sanctioned, a Town Planning Officer is appointed. His duties are to hear each owner individually, consider his objections or suggestions and make suitable adjustments or amendments in the draft scheme proposals, if found necessary.

Most of the local authorities have no technical staff of their own to prepare the development plans and it has been decided that this department should prepare the development plans on behalf of local authorities under the provisions of the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1954. Accordingly a scheme for the preparation of development plans was provided in the Five-Year Plans and additional staff was sanctioned for this purpose.

There is at present no branch office of this department in Sangli district and the work of town planning, valuation and allied matters arising from the district is being looked after by the Assistant Director of Town Planning, Kolhapur.

During the post-independence period, the Kolhapur office, after its creation in December 1949, has so far prepared the development plans for the towns of Sangli, Miraj, Tasgaon, Ashta and Uran-Islampur. The development plan of Miraj has been finally sanctioned by Government under section 10 (1) of the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1954, which came into force from 1st November 1958. Similarly the development plan of Tasgaon finally sanctioned by Government has come into force from 1st November 1962. The local authorities of Ashta and Uran-Islampur have submitted development plans of these towns to Government for sanction which is expected to be accorded soon. The Sangli municipality has prepared and published the development plan for inviting suggestions from the public and the development plan would be finalised and submitted to Government for sanction soon. There are six municipal towns in the district of which five towns have already been covered by the Scheme of preparation of Development plans. Development plan for Vita would be prepared shortly.

The Miraj Municipality has prepared a Draft Town Planning Scheme, Miraj No. I for an area of about 159·84 hectares (395 acres). Government have sanctioned the draft scheme which is now on hand with Arbitrator for finalisation.

In addition to the above, a number of layouts for the planning of open lands ripe for development and replanning of congested areas have been prepared by the Kolhapur office which included layouts for industrial estates, market yards and new village sites.

CHAPTER 15.

Education and Culture.

INTRODUCTION.

CHAPTER 15—EDUCATION AND CULTURE

IN WHAT FOLLOWS IS THE BRIEF NARRATION of the history of education in the former princely state of Sangli[1]. Captain Burke's scheme of free and in certain conditions compulsory education remained in force in the early twenties of this century in the then Sangli State. The sanguine expectations of Captain Burke were not fulfilled. The benefits of education were not always appreciated and, in consequence, apathy, if not concealed opposition, were met with. To remedy this state of affairs all villages were made equally subject to compulsion. This showed results as is clear from the following table:—

	1910-11	1915-16	1919-20
Number of State primary schools.	143	148	138
Number of pupils on the rolls	9,231	6,824	7,993

At the end of 1919-20, there were the following educational institutions in the then Sangli State :—

College (private)	1
High schools	2
Anglo-Vernacular schools ..	5
Girls' schools	10
Sanskrit schools	5
Night schools	1
Low Caste schools	5
Indigenous Vernacular schools, four of them (private) aided by the State.	15

By the end of 1929-30, compulsion had been introduced in 71 school areas: the total number of Government primary schools was 166 and the number of pupils attending them 11,875. Other educational institutions—Government recognised and unrecognised together—numbered 29, and had an enrolment of 2,309. There were two Government High Schools and one aided High School—the City High School, Sangli, managed by the pioneer

[1] Based on the account given in Prof. P. M. Limaye's *Sangli State*, 1910-1948 p. 60.

CHAPTER 15. Education and Culture. INTRODUCTION.

Sangli Education Society. A Training College for teachers was opened in 1942. The period between 1944—46 saw the opening of Shrimant Vijayasinha Montessori School, the Girls' High School conducted by the Women's Education Society, Sangli and the Engineering College conducted by the Maharashtra Technical Education Society, Poona and later christianed as the Walchand College of Engineering.

Beginning of Western Education.

The beginning of western education in Sangli district was made in 1884. The oldest secondary school in Sangli district was started at Sangli in 1884 as a State High School. It was managed by the then State Government. Pioneering work of introducing private enterprise in this field was done by the Sangli Education Society and the Women's Education Society. Sangli, the latter specially working for the spread of secondary education amongst girls.

GENERAL EDUCATION.

Before the advent of the Zilla Parishad, education was under the jurisdiction of the State Government and the Director of Education was the head of the department at the State level.

Schemes of the Central Government and the policy of the State Government regarding education were executed at the district level by the Government Inspectorate in the district. The District Inspectorate consisted of one Educational Officer of class I, one Deputy Educational Inspector of class II and 20 Assistant Deputy Educational Inspectors. All educational institutions in the district were under the control of the Educational Officer. To facilitate the administration of primary education. District School Boards were entrusted with the work connected with it. Secondary schools, primary training colleges and other technical and professional institutions were placed under the control of the Educational Officer. The Inspector and his deputies visited and inspected these institutions and recommended grant-in-aid. Besides this. the Educational Officer was also empowered to exercise general supervision over the administration of the schools including primary schools.

The District School Board, which is now a defunct body, was composed of a Chairman, a Vice-chairman and 14 other elected and nominated members. The Administrative Officer, who worked as an *ex officio* Secretary of the body, was the representative of the State Government to guide the Board on Government policies in regard to the educational matters. He executed the programmes chalked out by the Board as regards the primary education. in consultation with the Staff Selection Committee, a statutory body under the Primary Education Act, 1947. Teachers were interviewed, selected and appointed by him in accordance with the rules prescribed by the State Government in this behalf. He had the administrative control over the primary schools. and transferred, promoted and deputed teachers for further training in consultation with the Staff Selection Committee. He was assisted by four Assistant Administrative Officers in his work.

The academic side of the work regarding primary schools was supervised and controlled by the Assistant Deputy Educational Inspectors working under the control of the Educational Officer.

They recommended cases for opening of primary schools, grants to primary schools, etc., through the Deputy Educational Inspector who was their immediate superior. Besides this, they performed several other duties for the promotion of primary education.

This was, in brief, the picture of administrative set up with the powers and duties of the functionaries of the Education department.

With the advent of Zilla Parishad, education continues as one of the important and the major departments of the Zilla Parishad. There have been noticeable changes in the organisational pattern of the department with the formation of the Zilla Parishad.

The powers and duties of the Educational Officer remain much more the same. He is to act, hereafter, as the Secretary to the Education Committee of the Sangli Zilla Parishad. With the policy of decentralisation, a portion of the work formerly done by the Administrative Officer, District School Board, has been transferred to the Block Development Officers of the Panchayat Samitis, who are assisted by the Assistant District Educational Inspectors. Bulk of the work regarding primary education still remains in the district sector.

Statistics of Primary and Secondary Schools.

The statistics pertaining to primary and secondary education in the district and information regarding education of backward classes, *gram shikshan mohim*, scouting and educational organisations in the district is given below:—

Villages with schools ..	493
Towns with schools ..	27
Villages without schools ..	8
Primary schools for boys under the Zilla Parishad ..	898
Private aided schools ..	100
Private unaided schools ..	..
Total ..	1,526
Primary schools for girls under the Zilla Parishad ..	144
Private aided schools ..	4
Private unaided schools ..	..
Total ..	148
Senior basic schools for boys ..	106
Senior basic schools for girls ..	4
Total ..	110

CHAPTER 15. Education and Culture. GENERAL EDUCATION. Statistics of Primary and Secondary Schools.

Junior basic schools for boys	..	21
Junior basic schools for girls	..	..
Total	..	21
Single teacher basic schools for boys	..	25
Single teacher basic schools for girls	..	..
Total	..	25
Single teacher ordinary schools for boys	..	368
Single teacher ordinary schools for girls	..	15
Total	..	383
Middle schools for boys	..	386
Middle schools for girls	..	81
Total	..	467
Other primary schools for boys	..	93
Other primary schools for girls	..	48
Total	..	141
Pupils in primary schools—		
Boys	..	1,21,502
Girls	..	66,829
Total	..	1,88,331

Schools with languages other than Marathi as media of instructions numbered 103. Of these, 41 schools had Urdu as the media of instruction (37 for boys and 4 for girls), 58 had Kannada (54 for boys and 4 for girls), two had Sindhi, one had English and one had Gujrati as the medium of instruction. Urdu schools had 5,999 pupils (2,680 boys and 3,319 girls), Kannada had 5,072 (3,310 boys and 1,762 girls), Sindhi had 160 (85 boys and 75 girls). Gujrati had 213 (116 boys and 97 girls) and English 94 (55 boys and 39 girls).

Basic Schools.

Of the 156 basic schools, 36 had spinning and weaving as a basic craft, 113 had agriculture, four had woodwork and three had wool spinning. The total number of backward class students stood at 31,761, inclusive of 22,088 boys and 9,673 girls.

The Zilla Parishad employed 4,089 teachers. Of these 3,755 were trained teachers including 3,095 men and 660 women against only 334 untrained teachers including 270 men. The compulsory primary education was introduced in 528 villages covering 1,22,857 pupils including 71,951 boys and 50,906 girls. Of the primary schools, 714 were held in owned premises, 548 in rented

premises and 601 in rent-free premises. The residential accommodation for backward class students was provided by 30 hostels for boys.

During the year 1962-63, the Zilla Parishad spent Rs. 68,05,536 including an expenditure of Rs. 3,04,492 on aided schools.

Secondary Education.

All the 134 secondary schools in the district were non-Government schools. Of these 69 provided education up to 11th standard, 28 up to 10th standard, 31 up to 9th standard and 6 up to 8th standard. Of these six were multipurpose schools with commerce, fine arts, home science and agriculture as the special subjects. Nine schools provided technical education. The total number of students attending these schools stood at 23 321 including 18.974 boys and 4,347 girls. Of the total number of 1.015 teachers, only 341 were untrained.

These schools received maintenance grant of Rs. 9,63,650. The benefit of 3.5 per cent freeships was given to 527 students in 49 schools. The expenditure on the same amounted to Rs. 30,855.62 Paise. The advantage of freeships and concessions was taken by 30 schools giving benefit to 75 students at an expenditure of Rs. 3,174-75 Paise.

Physical Education.

There was one national unit of fifty cadets under the national discipline scheme. The total number of units of the auxiliary cadet corps stood at 51. Each unit had 50 cadets. There were four boy scouts and girl guides units in the district.

College Education.

The first college in Sangli district was started by the Deccan Education Society of Poona. *viz.*, the Willingdon College (of Arts and Science) at Sangli in June 1919.

It proved to be an event of capital importance in the intellectual and cultural life of Sangli. The Deccan Education Society established another college at Sangli known as the Chintamanrao College of Commerce in June 1960.

The Maharashtra Technical Education Society of Poona established an Engineering College at Sangli known at that time as the New Engineering College, Sangli. A donation of Rupees one lakh was given to the society for the purpose from the then State funds. The college was opened in June 1947. Subsequently in 1955-56, it was renamed as the Walchand College of Engineering.

Besides the above colleges, there is the Sangli College conducted by the Lathhe Education Society and the Atreya College of Ayurved.

Literacy.

The following table shows the level of literacy, urban and rural in Sangli district according to 1961 census.

LEVEL OF LITERACY IN URBAN AREAS OF SANGLI DISTRICT IN 1961 *

	Males	Females	Total
(1) Total population	1,00,653	91,777	1,92,430
(2) Illiterate	40,676	63,897	1,04,573
(3) Literate (without educational level) ..	17,297	10,918	28,215

* Census Report, 1961.

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GENERAL EDUCATION.

Literacy.

	Males	Females	Total
(4) Educational levels—			
(a) Primary or Junior Basic	34,369	15,091	49,460
(b) Matriculation or Higher Secondary ..	6,420	1,420	7,840
(c) Technical diploma not equal to degree ..	219	47	266
(d) Non-technical diploma not equal to degree	333	241	574
(e) University degree or post-graduate degree other than technical degree.	732	91	823
(f) Technical degree or diploma equal to degree or post-graduate degree—			
(1) Engineering	75	..	75
(2) Medicine	150	18	168
(3) Agriculture	24	..	24
(4) Veterinary and dairying	9	..	9
(5) Technology	8	1	9
(6) Teaching	168	25	193
(7) Others	173	28	201

LEVEL OF LITERACY IN RURAL AREAS OF SANGLI DISTRICT IN 1961*

	Males	Females	Total
(1) Total population	5,28,101	5,10,185	10,38,286
(2) Illiterate	3,24,734	4,55,930	7,80,664
(3) Literate (without educational level).. ..	90,582	32,446	1,23,028
(4) Educational levels—			
(a) Primary or Junior Basic	1,07,037	21,264	1,28,301
(b) Matriculatoin and above	5,748	545	6,293

EDUCATION IN FINE ARTS.

Facilities for the education in fine arts are provided by three music classes and one drawing class in the district. There is one dramatic association known as Bhave Natya Mandir. The society has a standing of more than 60 years. The society has constructed a theatre, funds having been collected locally and through Government grants. The number of members of the society stood at 100.

There is a Hindi literary institute in Sangli which works for the expansion of the national language in the district. It honours writers in Hindi, stages Hindi dramas and publishes Hindi books. It also runs a series of lectures in Hindi. It has a total membership of 261 of whom 11 are life members.

MUSEUM AND BOTANICAL GARDEN.

The only museum in the district is known as the Sangli State Museum. It is housed in the old palace of the Raja of Sangli. A small botanical garden is attached to the Willingdon College at Sangli.

TECHNICAL AND INDUSTRIAL TRAINING.

All technical and industrial institutions and industrial training institutes and courses leading up to the diploma standard (Non-University courses) excluding courses falling under the control of the University are controlled by the Department of Technical Education, Maharashtra State, Bombay. Government have set up two different councils for this purpose, *viz*., (i) the State Council of Technical Education to advise and make recommendations in respect of technical and industrial institutes and

* Census Report, 1961.

courses leading up to the diploma standard and (ii) the State Council for Training in Vocational Trades to carry out the policy of the National Council with regard to the award of National Trade Certificates in engineering, building and leather trade and any other similar trades as may be brought within its scope by the Central or the State Government.

The Director of Technical Education conducts the annual examinations in the courses approved by the State Council of Technical Education, Bombay and awards certificates or diplomas to the successful candidates.

No Government institution has so far been established in the district under the State Council for Technical Education.

The following non-Government institutions are registered for inspection and examination (up to the diploma standard) in Sangli district.

Walchand College of Engineering, Sangli.

The Walchand College of Engineering, Sangli, provides instruction in the courses of studies leading to the degree and diploma in civil, mechanical and electrical engineering. The intake capacity for degree and diploma courses for the academic year 1962-63 was as under:—

Degree Course	Intake	Diploma Course	Intake
Civil Engineering ..	60	Civil Engineering ..	60
Mechanical Engineering.	30	Mechanical Engineering.	30
Electrical Engineering	30	Electrical Engineering	30

Technical and Industrial Institutes.

Besides the Walchand College of Engineering, instruction in technical subjects leading to the Secondary School Certificate Examination is given in the Sangli High School, Sangli; the Lakshmanrao Kirloskar Vidyamandir, Palus; the Swami Ramanand Vidyalaya, Ramanandnagar; the Vidya Mandir, Miraj; the Miraj High School, Miraj; the Azad Vidyalaya, Kasegaon; the Hutatma Kisan Ahir Vidyalaya, Walwa: the Vidyamandir High School, Islampur and the Bharati Vidyamandir, Tasgaon. Besides these schools with technical bias, there are many industrial schools in the district. The Sangli Industrial School, Sangli, conducts courses in motor mechanics. The Miraj Institute of Engineering conducts courses for draftsman in civil and mechanical engineering, tracing and estimating. The courses in tracing, radio repairing, wireman's apprenticeship, electrical apprenticeship and draftsmanship in civil and mechanical engineering are conducted by the D.S.T.E. Society's Technical Institute at Sangli. The course in radio serving is also provided by the Reliable Radio Servicing Institute, Sangli. The technical training centre at Palus conducts courses in turning, fitting, moulding and pattern making.

CHAPTER 15.

Education and Culture.

DIRECTORATE OF PUBLICITY

District Publicity Officer.

The Directorate of Publicity has a Publicity Officer for the district with headquarters at Sangli. He gives wide publicity to the developmental activities and schemes undertaken by the State Government.

The media of documentary films, newspapers, booklets, periodicals and other visual aids are used for the purpose of educating the people. The District Publicity Officer issues news items and feature articles to the local newspapers of the district. The District Publicity Officer keeps close contacts with officials as well as social workers, press and the main currents in the public life of the district, and acts as a liaison between the people of the district and the Government.

He arranges sale and distribution of publications issued by the Directorate of Publicity as well as by the Government of India. He also distributes wall-posters, folders, booklets, leaflets, etc., brought out by the Directorate. He is also in-charge of District Information Centre. The office of the District Publicity Officer and the District Information Centre is under the Regional Publicity Officer, Poona.

The Centre provides for a free reading-room where newspapers, magazines, maps and charts giving information about the district, booklets on the Government activities in the district and books of general interest and other reports are kept for ready reference. Queries received from the visitors are duly replied with a view to guiding them. The movie equipment along with the mobile publicity van, now comes under the control of the Zilla Parishad. The supervision over the rural broadcasting section is also exercised by the Zilla Parishad.

CHAPTER 16—MEDICAL AND PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICES

CHAPTER 16.

Medical and Public Health Services.

EARLY TIMES.

CONSCIOUSNESS OF PUBLIC HEALTH AND MEDICAL FACILITIES and consequent growth of them is a development of recent origin and could be attributed to Western education. Till the early decades of this century the populace was not disease-conscious and rarely availed of the medical facilities. A disease was, most of the times, ascribed to some evil influence rather than to any physical disorder and the only way thought fit to propitiate the disease was some sacrifice. The field of the medical profession was dominated by the *vaidyas*, the *vaidus*, the *hakims* and such other persons. The *vaidyas* used to give treatment according to the ayurvedic system of medicine. Their knowledge presented a combination of the medical and physiological know how that they acquired from their *gurus*, forefathers and from practical experience in course of their medical practice. Most of them used to diagnose the disease by *nadi pariksha* (the feeling of the pulse). The use of minerals was also developed in ayurvedic system which it used as *ras* or *bhasm* which was not possible without a thorough knowledge of chemistry. The *vaidyas* commanded great respect and practised mostly in the rural areas of the country. Their medicines were cheap and reliable. That the ayurvedic system of medicine prevailed throughout the ages in India is clearly evident from the fact that it was regarded as an integral part of Indian culture. We find in Sanskrit literature voluminous treatises on the subject such as Sushruta, Madhava Nidana and Vagbhata.

The system of diagnosis by *vaidus* and *vaidyas* did not essentially differ from the ayurvedic system of medicine. However, the *vaidus* diagnosis was based mostly upon the symptoms while that of the *vaidyas* was based upon the study of physiology. But the *vaidus* moved from place to place and they possessed a good knowledge of rare herbs with rich medicinal properties. They occasionally treated the live-stock in the absence of any specialised veterinary practitioners.

The modern and up-to-date maternity facilities were conspicuous by their absence and pre-natal, post-natal and anti-natal care of the expectant mother was the sole responsibility of the elderly ladies in the joint families whose practical personal experience was of immense value for the purpose. The female

CHAPTER 16. Medical and Public Health Services. MODERN TRENDS.

nurse who acquired a sort of specialised knowledge about deliveries rendered extremely useful service.

During the last few decades, the allopathic system of medicine had made a great impact on the minds of the people. Relatively, the importance of the indigenous systems of medicine dwindled considerably. Due to the intrinsic value of the indigenous systems of medicine, efforts are now made at Government level to revive them. Now-a-days, most of the practitioners in indigenous systems of medicine combine allopathy with the one followed by them. With the great strides made in the field of preventive inoculations and injections, the diseases like plague which once made life of the people miserable have been completely eradicated. With the progress made in obstetrics and gynæcology and due to the loss of faith in superstitious beliefs consequent upon the spread of education, people have come to place more reliance upon medical care and cure.

DISEASES COMMON TO THE DISTRICT.

The following table gives the number of deaths in Sangli district due to different causes in 1957 and 1961:—

Cause	Deaths 1957	Deaths 1961	Cause	Deaths 1957	Deaths 1961
Cholera	237	95	Suicide	28	14
Smallpox	25	33	Wound or accident	248	170
Fevers	3,482	2,794	Wild beasts attacks	3	..
Dysentery and diarrhoea	718	762	Snakebite	46	25
Respiratory diseases	1,662	1,209	Rabies	4	8
			All other causes ..	5,025	5,941

Fever.

Though the frequency of this disease has reduced considerably the findings of the Annual Public Health Report threw searching light upon the state of public health viewed in the present context. "The influenza epidemic" says the Annual Public Health Report of the Bombay State for 1957 "which swept the whole country, particularly the urban population, accounted for a high morbidity rate, the mortality being practically nil... ... .". As was the case with the State as a whole, Sangli district also showed heavy mortality due to fevers. However, about this also the Report states that 'Fevers' and 'other causes' accounted for about 75 per cent of the total deaths in the State. This high percentage is evidently due to tendency on the part of the village officers to show the cause of death as fevers or other causes in the absence of easily determinable causes of death. During the year, 1957 deaths under the group 'fevers' included causes such as malaria, typhoid fever, measles, etc., and a large number of unclassified fevers as 'other fevers'. The death rate due to fevers was 5.5 (per mille) for the whole State. The report also mentions that the disease prevailed in the former Bombay State more or less throughout the year. In Sangli district, 35 villages reported deaths from cholera.

DISEASES COMMON TO THE DISTRICT.

Smallpox.

The report mentions that smallpox was sporadic in the district besides a few other districts. That accounts for 25 deaths due to smallpox during the year under question. Nine villages from the district reported deaths from smallpox.

Influenza.

Influenza spread in epidemic form throughout the Bombay State in 1957. All the districts in the State were more or less affected by the disease and Sangli district was not an exception. The Government immediately promulgated temporary Influenza Regulations and applied them to all the districts of the State. As a result of the stringent measures, it was possible to keep the mortality rate at the lowest possible level, *i.e.*, only 0.1 per cent. By giving prompt treatment to the influenza cases, in the initial stages, nearer their homes, it was possible to avert these cases from developing complications and by isolating and treating complicated influenza cases in temporary hospitals, it was possible to reduce the fatality amongst even serious cases. 25 deaths were reported due to influenza in the district. The number from pneumonia which is generally the after stage of influenza stands at 104.

VITAL STATISTICS.

The following statement shows the number of births registered in Sangli district during the year 1961:—

	Male	Female	Total
Mid-year estimated population for 1961 ..	6,32,771	6,05,631	12,38,402
Number of births	18,675	17,407	36,082
Ratio of births per 1000 of estimated population.	15·1	14·1	29·2
Mean ratio of births per 1000 during previous five years	16·7	15·1	31·6

In Sangli district, 15,182 deaths were registered in 1961 giving the mean ratio of death per 1,000 during the previous five years as follows:—

Male	13·4
Female	13·7
Total	13·4

The following statement shows the number of deaths due to certain diseases in the rural and urban areas of Sangli district during 1961:—

	Rural		Urban	
	Deaths	Ratio	Deaths	Ratio
Enteric fevers..	53	0·1	49	0·1
Measles	121	0·2	15	0·0
Malaria	268	0·3	32	0·1
Other fevers	2,352	2·8	674	1·9
Dysentery	5	0·0	13	0·0
Diarrhoea	757	0·9	203	0·6
Pneumonia	26	0·0	16	0·0

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VITAL STATISTICS.

	Rural		Urban	
	Deaths	Ratio	Deaths	Ratio
Phthisis	405	0·5	153	0·4
Whooping cough	3	0·0	3	0·0
Other Respiratory, diseases ..	775	0.9	408	1·1
Diphtheria	12	0·0	12	0·0
Leprosy	49	0·1	14	0·0
Cancer	43	0·1	49	0·1
Death from child birth ..	117	..	46	..

*Infant Mortality

The following statement[1] shows the infant mortality in the district in 1961:—

	Male	Female	Total
Within 24 hours	103	59	162
Above 24 hours to end of first week	220	157	377
Above one week to end of first month	288	265	553
Between one month and three months	169	144	313
Between three months and six months.	127	135	262
Between six months and a year ..	342	331	673
Total ..	1,249	1,091	2,340

The infant mortality rate was placed at 90 per 1,000 births in rural areas and 118 per 1,000 in urban areas.

The district recorded 346 still births in 1961 giving 9.5 as the percentage ratio to live births.

PUBLIC HEALTH Organisation

The public health of the district is looked after by the Public Health department of the State and the local bodies such as the municipalities, the Zilla Parishad and the panchayat samitis.

The Director of Public Health with headquarters at Poona is the head of the department at the State level. The State has been divided into four divisions for public health purposes. Each division is in charge of a Deputy Director of Public Health Services. The jurisdiction of the Poona division extends over the district of Sangli. The District Health Officer, who is responsible for all public health matters in the district, is the head of the Health department of the Zilla Parishad. Though technical control over him is exercised by the Director of Public Health, Maharashtra State, Poona, he has to work under the administrative control of the Chief Executive Officer of the Zilla Parishad.

Primary Health Centres.

The Medical Officers in charge of the primary health centres are responsible for rendering preventive as well as curative help to the populace covered by the centre. There are eight such

* Infant is taken to be a child up to one year of age.

[1] Table taken from the Annual Public Health Report, Bombay State, 1957.

centres in the district. The work regarding vaccination is carried out by 19 vaccinators and 10 sanitary inspectors. There are 27 ayurvedic dispensaries in the district.

CHAPTER 16. Medical and Public Health Services. PUBLIC HEALTH.

The B.C.G. campaign, the malaria eradication programme, the smallpox eradication programme and such of the campaigns, have also made a good stride in the district.

Family Planning.

There are in all six family planning centres in the district. During 1963-64, 3,647 operations were performed under the supervision of these centres. The centres also undertake the work of publicity in this respect.

MEDICAL SERVICES.

The medical organisation in the district is designed to render medical assistance to the general populace.

The General Hospital, Sangli, is the main Government hospital at the district headquarters. It is owned, staffed, financed and controlled by the Government. All the aided dispensaries formerly owned and managed by the Government, have, with the emergence of the Zilla Parishad, been transferred to that organisation. These alongwith registered medical practitioner's centres and other dispensaries are in charge of the Health Officer of the Zilla Parishad. Hence, the Civil Surgeon practically remains as the Superintendent of the General Hospital, Sangli, excepting the two dispensaries at Islampur and Tasgaon which are under the control of the municipalities. The Zilla Parishad runs the dispensaries at Budhgaon, Kavtha Mahankal, Jath, Kundal, Shirale and Bhawaninagar. All the medical officers perform the medico-legal work.

Civil Surgeon.

The Civil Surgeon, Sangli, is the administrative head of the General Hospital, Sangli, and is responsible to the Surgeon-General with the Government of Maharashtra, Bombay. He is the inspecting officer of all Government and aided hospitals and dispensaries. He supervises the grant-in-aid dispensaries and hospitals in the district. Though all the activities regarding public health have been transferred to the Zilla Parishad, the Civil Surgeon is responsible for the sanitary administration of Sangli town and has to take active part in matters of public health affecting the district in collaboration with the Health Officer of the Sangli Zilla Parishad. The technical control, so far as the medico-legal work in the district is concerned, vests in him

General Hospital.

The General Hospital, Sangli, is situated in a recently constructed building of its own and has an accommodation for about 115 beds. Nurses' quarters have also been provided for. A separate building houses a T.B. Clinic attached to the General Hospital which has an accommodation for about 16 patients affected by T.B.

An advisory committee has been attached to this hospital. It is headed by the Civil Surgeon and includes ten other members. The committee assists the management of the hospital by keeping the authorities informed as to the needs of the hospital as

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MEDICAL SERVICES.

General Hospital.

viewed by the public and advising the authorities in charge of the hospital about reforms to be carried out in connection with the welfare of the patients as well as the staff attached to the hospital. The rules of the department provide for the nomination of a representative each of the Zilla Parishad and the municipality, elected from amongst themselves on the hospital advisory committee. There are also two lady members nominated on the committee.

The staff of the General Hospital, Sangli, consists of the Civil Surgeon who is a Class I Officer of the Maharashtra Medical Service and an Assistant Medical Officer who belongs to Class II of the same service. They are assisted by other medical officers. The paid staff of the hospital is assisted by the honorary medical officers. The Sister Tutor at the hospital provides training facilities to the student nurses undergoing a 3½ year-general-nursing course.

The Civil Surgeon of the district even now continues to be the chief advisor of the revenue officers of the district in matters relating to health and as such has to tender his expert advice when sought by the Collector of the district and the Commissioner of the division.

CHAPTER 17 — OTHER SOCIAL SERVICES

Labour Department

LABOUR.

Organisation.

All the offices dealing with labour matters fall within the administrative control of the Industries and Labour Department of the Government of Maharashtra. The Commissioner of Labour is the head of all such offices. The Commissioner of Labour has under him (i) Deputy Commissioners of Labour at Bombay and Nagpur, (ii) Assistant Commissioners of Labour at Bombay, Nagpur, Aurangabad and Poona, (iii) Chief Inspector of Factories, Bombay, with subordinate inspectors, (iv) Chief Inspector of Steam Boilers and Smoke Nuisances, Bombay, with Subordinate Inspectors and (v) the Chief Government Labour Officer, Bombay, with Government Labour Officers at important centres of the State.

Functions.

The Commissioner of Labour performs the statutory functions entrusted to him under the Industrial Disputes Act, 1947; the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926; the Industrial Employment (Standing Orders) Act, 1946; the Minimum Wages Act, 1948; the Working Journalists (Conditions of service and Miscellaneous Provisions) Act, 1955; and the Motor Transport Workers Act, 1961, which are the Central Acts and the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946; the C. P. and Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act, 1947; and the Bombay Shops and Establishments Act, 1948, which are the State Acts.

Apart from the above, he supervises the enforcement of the above acts administratively. The Commissioner of Labour supervises and co-ordinates the working of all the offices under his control. In addition, the office of the Commissioner of Labour has to compile and publish the Consumer Price Index Numbers for working class for Bombay, Sholapur, Jalgaon, Nagpur, Aurangabad and Nanded; conduct socio-economic enquiries into the conditions of labour; compile and disseminate information on labour matters generally and statistics regarding industrial disputes, agricultural wages, absenteeism, cotton mill production, trade unions etc. particulary; publish Labour Gazette and Industrial Court Reporter which are monthlies; supervise the working of the Bombay Shops and Establishments Act, 1948, wherever it is administered by local authorities and to undertake Personnel Management Advisory Service.

CHAPTER 17.

Other Social Services.

LABOUR.

Labour Unions.

One of the Deputy Commissioners of Labour at Bombay, has been notified as the Registrar of Trade Unions under the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926, in addition to his duties as the Deputy Commissioner of Labour, Bombay. He is assisted in his work by the Assistant Commissioner of Labour, Poona, who works as the Deputy Registrar for the Poona region which includes Sangli district.

The work in connection with the administration of this Act includes the registration of trade unions under the Act, registration of amendments to the constitutions of the unions and preparation of the Annual Report on the working of the Act in the State based on the information contained in the annual returns submitted by the registered trade unions under section 28 of the Act. There are 23 registered trade unions in Sangli District.

One of the Assistant Commissioners of Labour at Bombay, has been appointed as the Registrar under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946, and his jurisdiction extends over the whole of the State except the Marathwada and the Vidarbha regions. An Assistant Registrar has also been appointed and has been invested with all the powers of Registrar under the Act. The Registrar's work falls under the following heads, *viz.*, (*a*) recognition of undertakings and occupations; (*b*) registration of unions; (*c*) maintenance of approved lists of unions; (*d*) registration of agreements, settlements, submissions and awards; and (*e*) maintenance of list of joint committees constituted under section 48 of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act.

In Sangli district, there were, in 1964, two unions registered under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act as representative unions. The details about the same are given below:—

Name of the Union	Membership	Industry	Local Area
Miraj Taluka Girni Kamgar Sangh, Madhavanagar, District Sangli.	1,925	Cotton ..	Miraj taluka.
Sakhar Kamgar Union, Sangli	485	Sugar ..	Do.

Labour Officer.

A Government Labour Officer has been posted at Sangli. He is a Class II Gazetted Officer and belongs to the general State Service. He works under the Chief Government Labour Officer, Bombay, and the Commissioner of Labour, Bombay. The Labour Officer is appointed primarily to implement the provisions of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946, which is a State Act and is also notified as an Inspector under the Minimum Wages Act, 1948, as also the Payment of Wages Act. In addition, he has been appointed as an Additional Inspector of Factories in respect of certain sections pertaining to the welfare provisions under the Factories Act. The powers conferred and the duties imposed on a Labour Officer under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act are not restricted to any particular section under that Act; but are contained in the various provisions

Labour Officer.

of the Act.[1] For the purpose of exercising his powers, a Labour Officer may enter any place used for any industry, any place used as the office of any union and any premises provided by an employer for the residence of his employees. He is entitled to call for and inspect all relevant documents which may be deemed necessary for the due discharge of his duties and powers under this Act. He has also the power of convening a meeting of employees for any of the purposes of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, on the premises where the employees are employed and he may require the employer to affix a written notice of the meeting at such a conspicuous place as he may deem fit. A Labour Officer is charged with the duty of working after the interest of employees and promoting harmonious relations between the employers and the employees, of investigating the grievances of employees who are not members of the Approved Unions, and of members of an Approved Union on the request of such a union, of representing to the employers such grievances and of making recommendations to them in respect of the same and of reporting to the State Government the existence of any industrial dispute of which no notice of change has been given together with the names of the parties thereto. A Labour Officer, in certain contingencies, acts as a representative of the employees if so authorised by them, and where a representative union does not exist and he is not authorised also by the employees to act as their representative and where employees do not elect their own representative from amongst them, then he becomes their representative *suo motu*. In short, a Labour Officer has to work as a sort of residual representative of the employees. He has also to help the representative and the approved union. He has always to be in touch with the changes in the labour situation in the undertakings in the various industries covered by the Bombay Industrial Relations Act and to report major and important incidents to his superior officers and Government. He intervenes whenever there is a stoppage or strike and gives legal guidance and advice to the employees involved in such incidents. He does likewise in respect of employers in connection with the closures and lock-outs which may not be legal. In short, he explains the correct position under the law to the parties concerned with a view to seeing that any illegal action on their part is rectified by them without any delay. A Labour Officer is probably the only executive officer envisaged under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act by virtue of powers conferred on him under section 82 of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act who, except the person affected by any offence under the Act, can make a complaint to the Labour Court constituted under the Act. The Labour Court cannot take cognizance of any offence except on a report in writing from the Labour Officer of facts constituting such offence. In addition to the above, a Labour Officer can also start proceedings in a Labour Court under section 79 read with

[1] The powers and the duties of the Labour Officer are mainly given in Chapter VI and section 34 of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act.

CHAPTER 17. Other Social Services. LABOUR. Labour Officer.

section 78 of the said Act. In short, a Labour Officer has been given very heavy, onerous and heterogeneous duties and responsibilities. He also informally advises the trade unions whenever they seek his advice on labour matters. For the purposes of certification of standing orders under the Industrial Employment (Standing Orders) Act, a Labour Officer helps the Commissioner of Labour who is the certifying Officer under that Act in holding elections of the workmen concerned for the purposes of getting the names of their representatives who are to be associated with the discussion when the draft standing orders are to be certified.

Industrial Arbitration and Adjudication.

The Court of Industrial Arbitration or the Industrial Court, Bombay, as constituted under section 10 of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, has jurisdiction over Sangli district.[1] The Labour Courts at Bombay exercise jurisdiction over the Sangli district. These Courts are presided over by Labour Court Judges and enjoy such powers as are conferred upon them under sections 78 to 86 of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act.

Wage Boards.

There are three Wage Boards appointed for the State one each for cotton textile industry, silk textile industry and sugar industry. The Wage Boards are to decide such disputes as are referred to them by the State Government under sections 86C and 86KK of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act.

The Bombay Shops and Establishments Act, 1948 (LXXIX of 1948). has been applied to the municipal areas of Sangli and Miraj towns in the district.

The Employees' State Insurance Scheme has not been extended to the district.

No Consumers' Price Index Number is worked out for working class for Sangli or for any other centre in the district.

Factory Department.

The Factory Department is under the administrative control of the Commissioner of Labour, but the Chief Inspector of Factories has complete control of the technical side of the work of the department all over the State. Though the department is responsible mainly for the administration of the Factories Act (LXIII of 1948), it has to administer the Payment of Wages Act (IV of 1936), the Cotton Ginning and Pressing Factories Act (XII of 1925) (section 9, regarding approval of plans of new ginning factories only), the Employment of Children Act, 1938 and the Bombay Maternity Benefit Act (VII of 1929).

The department has a sub-office at Kolhapur, in charge of a Junior Inspector of Factories, an Officer belonging to the General State Services. The jurisdiction of this office extends over Sangli district.

The main function of the inspectors is to ensure that the provisions of the Factories Act and rules thereunder are observed by the managements of factories.

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[1] The duties and powers of the Industrial Court are detailed in Chapter XIII of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act.

The inspectors, have also powers to prosecute, conduct or defend before the competent courts, cases under the Factories Act, the Payment of Wages Act and the Maternity Benefit Act.

Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation.

Under the provisions of the Workmen's Compensation Act (VIII of 1923), the Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation, Bombay, has been given exclusive jurisdiction over Bombay and Bombay Suburban District. The Commissioner has also exclusive jurisdiction to try all cases relating to the Western and Central Railways and hydro-electric companies under the management of Messrs. Tata Hydro-electric Agencies Ltd., arising in the State, irrespective of the district in which they occur. The Commissioner has also general jurisdiction over the whole State. For the remaining areas of the State, Civil Judges have been appointed *ex-officio* Commissioners for their respective jurisdiction. The principal reason for giving the Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation, Bombay, jurisdiction over the whole State is to enable him to settle cases with insurance companies and other firms which have their head offices in Bombay City. But as this arrangement necessarily entails a certain amount of overlapping, Government have issued instructions under section 20 (2) of the Act for distribution of work between the Commissioner and the *ex-officio* Commissioners. Under these instructions, the Commissioner at Bombay is authorised—

(*a*) to receive deposits for distribution of compensation under sub-sections (1) and (2) of section 8;

(*b*) to issue notices to and to receive applications from claimants in cases of deposits under these sub-sections; and

(*c*) to receive agreements for registration under section 28, whenever the accident may have taken place.

Where a deposit is received or an agreement is tendered for registration, the Commissioner concerned notifies the *ex-officio* Commissioner concerned Applications for orders to deposit compensation when no deposit under section 8 (1) has been received, and other applications provided for in section 22 of the Act should be made to the *ex-officio* Commissioner concerned if the accident occurs in the Sangli district. Notices to employers under section 10-A, requiring statements regarding fatal accidents in the district is issued by the *ex-officio* Commissioner and reports of fatal accidents made under section 10-B are received by him. If, after notice has been issued by the *ex-officio* Commissioner under section 10-A, the employer deposits the money with the Commissioner at Bombay, the latter notifies the receipt of the deposit to the *ex-officio* Commissioner concerned.

Applications for review or commutation of half-monthly payments have to be made to the Commissioner who passed the original orders.

As regards the cases arising out of accidents on the Southern Railway, they are dealt with by the *ex-officio* Commissioners concerned.

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LABOUR.

Payment of Wages Act.

In Sangli district the civil judges have been appointed authorities for the areas within their jurisdictions under the Payment of Wages Act, 1936.

Steam Boilers and Smoke Nuisances Department.

Though this department is under the administrative control of the Commissioner of Labour, Bombay, the Chief Inspector of Steam Boilers and Smoke Nuisances, who is the head of the office, has full control over the technical side of the work of the department and he is responsible for the smooth working and administration of the Indian Boilers Act, 1960, and rules thereunder.

The work carried out by this department mainly comprises the registration and inspection of steam boilers, economisers and steam pipes including mountings and other fittings. The registration and inspection work of the steam boilers in the district is carried out by the Inspector of Steam Boilers of Southern Division with his headquarters at Bombay.

PROHIBITION AND EXCISE DEPARTMENT

PROHIBITION AND EXCISE. Organisation.

The Director of Prohibition and Excise, who is the head of the Prohibition and Excise department is responsible for the administration of the Excise and Prohibition Laws in the State. His office, therefore, forms a central organisation for directing the proper implementation of the policy of the department and for guiding the Collectors and the District and Subordinate Prohibition and Excise Officers in the State.

The Prohibition and Excise department administers the Bombay Prohibition Act, 1949, the Bombay Opium Smoking Act, 1936, the Bombay Drugs (Control) Act, 1959, the Medicinal and Toilet Preparations (Excise Duties) Act, 1955, the Spirituous Preparations (Inter-State Trade and Commerce) Control Act, 1955, and the Dangerous Drugs Act, 1930.

The Bombay Prohibition Act, 1949, prohibits the production, manufacture, possession, exportation, importation, transportation, purchase, sale, consumption and use of all intoxicants. However, these operations are lawful if they are permitted by any rules, regulations or orders. The Act also regulates the possession, sale etc., of *mhowra* flowers and molasses.

The Bombay Opium Smoking Act, 1936, prohibits the smoking of opium

The Bombay Drugs (Control) Act, 1959, regulates the possession and sale of certain drugs which are used in a manner injurious to health and which are specified by Government in the Maharashtra Government Gazette as 'notified drugs'.

The Medicinal and Toilet Preparations (Excise Duties) Act, 1955, provides for the levy and collection of duties of excise on medicinal and toilet preparation containing alcohol, opium, Indian hemp or other narcotic drug or narcotics.

The Spirituous Preparations (Inter-State Trade and Commerce) Control Act, 1955, makes provision for imposition in the public interest of certain restrictions on inter-State trade and commerce in spirituous, medicinal and other preparations and to provide for matters connected therewith.

CHAPTER 17. Other Social Services. PROHIBITION AND EXCISE. Organisation.

The Dangerous Drugs Act, 1930, prohibits the manufacture, exportation, importation, sale, possession and transportation of manufactured drugs like cocaine, morphine, heroin, pethidine etc. except in accordance with the rules made in that behalf.

The enforcement of prohibition, *i.e.*, detection, investigation, etc., of offences under the above Acts is entrusted to the Police department. Besides administration of the Acts mentioned above, the Prohibition and Excise department attends to the work of prohibition propaganda and education. Social workers of repute are appointed at the divisional level as Divisional Honorary Prohibition Organisers and they attend to the work of prohibition propaganda by addressing meetings and impressing upon the masses the evil effects of intoxicants. They also work for enlisting the co-operation of social workers and institutions for prohibition propaganda. At the district level, Prohibition Propaganda Officers carry on intensive prohibition propaganda.

The control in all excise matters is vested in the Director of Prohibition and Excise. He is also responsible for general supervision of the prohibition propaganda work carried out by the departmental officers. The Collectors have certain functions under the aforesaid acts such as issue of licences and permits, and in respect of such functions, they are subordinate to the Director of Prohibition and Excise.

For Sangli district, there is a District Inspector of Prohibition and Excise at Sangli who assists the Collector of Sangli in all excise and prohibition matters. Under the District Inspector, there are two Sub-Inspectors of Prohibition and Excise for executive work. The Sub-Inspectors of Prohibition and Excise have also been vested with certain powers under the Prohibition Act, the Dangerous Drugs Act and the Bombay Opium Smoking Act. There is also a Prohibition Propaganda Officer in Sangli district who carries out prohibition propaganda throughout the district under the guidance of the District Inspector of Prohibition and Excise, Sangli, and the Divisional Honorary Prohibition Organiser, Poona.

Functions.

The main functions of this department are confined to licensing, inspection of licences and the enforcement of various controls enacted under the Acts referred to above, particularly under the Bombay Prohibition Act. The officers of the department have also to do propaganda on total prohibition and the various advantages derived therefrom amongst the people in the State and to supervise and organise recreation centres in their charges and to co-operate with the Police department in their duties of prevention and detection of prohibiton offences. The excise staff

CHAPTER 17. Other Social Services. PROHIBITION AND EXCISE. Functions.

is responsible for the supervision of bonded manufactories, warehouses, *Neera* centres and management of Government liquor and drugs sales depots and inspection of various excise licences. They are also required to associate themselves with the ameliorative and social side of the prohibition campaign. Briefly, they are responsible for control, propaganda and ameliorative work. Though, officers of the Prohibition and Excise department of and above the rank of Sub-Inspector have been vested with powers to investigate offences, these officers generally pass on the information of the commission of offences and hand over the cases, if any, detected by them, to the Police for investigation. The Home Guards Organisation also assists the police in this work. Under section 134 of the Prohibition Act, village officers, village servants useful to Government and officers and servants of local authorities are bound to give information to the Police of breaches of the provisions of the Act which may come to their knowledge and also to prevent the commission of breaches of the provisions of the Act about which they may have knowledge. Under section 133, officers and servants of local authorities are also bound to assist any police officer or person authorised to carry out provisions of the Act. Under section 135, occupiers of lands and buildings, landlords of estates, owners of vehicles, etc., are bound to give notice of any illicit tapping of trees or manufacture of liquor or intoxicating drugs to a Magistrate, a Prohibition Officer or a Police Officer as soon as they come to know of it.

All revenue officers of and above the rank of Mamlatdar or Mahalkari, all Magistrates and all officers of the Department of Prohibition and Excise of and above the rank of Sub-Inspector have been authorised under section 123 of the Prohibition Act, within the limits of their respective jurisdictions, to arrest without a warrant any person whom they have reason to believe to be guilty of an offence under the Act, and to seize and detain any article of contraband. The officer so authorised, when he arrests any person or seizes and detains any articles, has to handover such person or articles without unnecessary delay to the officer-in-charge of the nearest police station.

Kinds of Permits.

Various permits are granted for possession, use and consumption of foreign liquor. They are—

Emergency Permit.—Emergency permit is granted for the use or consumption of brandy, rum or champagne to any person for his own use or consumption or to any head of a household for the use of his household for medicinal use on emergent occasions. A permit is not granted to more than one member of a household at anyone time or to a minor. The term 'household' is defined as a group of persons residing and messing jointly as the members of one domestic unit.

Health Permit.—The health permit is granted for the use or consumption of foreign liquor for a quantity up to the maximum of two units a month to any person who requires such liquor for the preservation or maintenance of his health.

Kinds of Permits.

Temporary Resident's Permit.—A temporary resident's permit is issued to persons born and brought up or domiciled in a country outside India where liquor is usually consumed.

Visitors Permit.—Any person visiting the State of Maharashtra for a period of not more than a week and desiring to possess, use and consume foreign liquor is granted this permit.

Special permits for privileged personages.—This permit is granted to consular officers and the members of the staff appointed by or serving under them, provided that such members are nationals of foreign countries. It is also granted to the consorts and relatives of the above persons.

Interim Permit.—Any person who is eligible for a temporary residents' permit, health permit or special permit for privileged personages, and desires to possess, use or consume foreign liquor pending grant of any of the regular permits mentioned above is granted an interim permit.

Tourists Permit.—A foreign tourist holding a tourist's introduction card or tourist visa, visiting the State of Maharashtra, is granted free a tourist's permit for the period of his stay in the State but for a period not exceeding one month.

Denatured Spirit.

The possession and use of denatured spirit is prohibited, except under permit or licence. A permit for possession and use of denatured spirit for domestic purposes is granted for a quantity not exceeding one quart bottle per month:

Provided that the officer granting the permit may for any special reasons grant the permit for any quantity not exceeding three quart bottles per month:

Provided further that with previous sanction of the Collector, a permit may be granted for a quantity not exceeding three quart bottles per month.

The possession and use of denatured spirit for medicinal, scientific and educational purposes and for the purpose of art, industry or profession is regulated by the system of licences prescribed in this behalf. Methylated industrial denatured spirit required for use in any industry etc., is allowed to be possessed on licences issued under the Bombay Denatured Spirit Rules, 1959.

Country Liquor and Wine.

Authorisations for use of country liquor and wine for sacramental purposes only are granted to priests of certain communities, *viz.*, Parsees, Jews and Christians. The possession, use etc. of country liquor except for sacramental purposes is prohibited.

CHAPTER 17.

Other Social Services.

PROHIBITION AND EXCISE.

Ganja, Bhang and Opium.

A permit for personal consumption of opium, *ganja* and *bhang* is granted only on production of a medical certificate from the Medical Board constituted by Government or a Medical Officer appointed for the purpose.

Neera and Palm Products.

Neera sale licences as well as licences for manufacturing *gur* from *neera* are granted only to the co-operative societies organised by constructive social workers, other similarly organised institutions such as Gandhi Smarak Nidhi, *ashrams,* organisations in charge of intensive area schemes and sarvodaya centres etc., on the recommendation of the Khadi and Village Industries Board for the State of Maharashtra. No *neera* licences to individuals are granted.

Sanskar Kendras.

In order to provide facilities for recreation and to serve as counter attraction for the purpose of weaning the addicts from the drink and drug habit, "*Sanskar Kendras*" or Cultural Centres are established and are run either departmentally or by the efforts of the local social workers or social institutions interested in prohibition work. At the *Sanskar Kendras,* newspapers, magazines and facilities for indoor and outdoor games are provided and programmes like *bhajans, kirtans,* music, folk songs, dramas etc. are arranged. Government gives subsidy to the *Sanskar Kendras* run by social workers and institutions. In Sangli district, there are three subsidised *Sanskar Kendras* located at Shirola, Newri and Yerandoli.

However, recently, the Government have liberalised the granting of a permit and any person who is more than forty years of age, gets a permit on production of a medical certificate.

The objective in implementing the prohibition policy has been achieved to a considerable extent. It has resulted in the improvement of the economic lot of the people and the poorer drink addicts have now taken to better and healthier habits. Coupled with other social and economic reforms, prohibition policy is bound to improve, in general, the living standard of the people.

SOCIAL WELFARE DEPARTMENT.

SOCIAL WELFARE.

Organisation.

At the ministerial level, the Department of Social Welfare was constituted immediately on reorganisation of states, *i.e.*, from 1st November, 1956. It, however, took shape at the Directorate level since 15th September, 1957[1]. The backward class welfare work done previously by the Backward Class department is now done by the Backward Class Wing of the Social Welfare department. The other wing of the Social Welfare department is the Correctional Wing. The designation of the Director of Backward Class Welfare was changed to the Director of Social Welfare who is the head of the Social Welfare department of the State. The post of the Chief Inspector of Certified School and Institutions

[1] Vide Government Resolution, Labour and Social Welfare Department, No. BCE. 2857-D, dated 23rd September, 1957.

is redesignated as the Deputy Director of Social Welfare (Correctional Wing) and this officer assists the Director of Social Welfare in matters relating to the Correctional Wing. Two additional posts of Deputy Directors have been created. They have to look after the work relating to education and welfare of physically handicapped and the work relating to planning, research and statistics pertaining to both backward class welfare and correctional administration. The Backward Class Wing of the Social Welfare department aims at ameliorating the conditions of backward classes so that they could reach the standard of other privileged sections of the society.

There are divisional officers for each revenue division of the State. At the district level, the department has district officers termed as Social Welfare Officers. They execute the schemes undertaken by the Social Welfare department and co-ordinate the work of backward class welfare in the district in respect of backward class welfare schemes implemented by the various departments of the State.

Backward Classes.

The classification of backward classes is made into three broad categories, *viz.*, (1) the scheduled castes or *harijans,* (2) the scheduled tribes or *adivasis* and (3) the other backward classes, who are neither scheduled castes nor scheduled tribes but socially, economically and educationally as backward as the other two categories. The communities coming under the first two categories are notified by the Government of India under the orders of the President, for each of the States in the Indian Union. However, the classification as backward based on communities has been abolished and now the classification is based on economic conditions (income). This new class of other backward classes is given the concession of free education at all stages of education.

A number of other privileges have also been granted to backward classes and special grants are paid every year by the Government of India, under Article 275 (i) of the Constitution of India for ameliorating the condition of backward classes. Besides normal concessions made available to backward classes from time to time, special schemes have been framed for backward classes by the State Government under the Five-Year Plans which are being implemented vigorously.

Measures of Uplift.

The disabilities of backward classes are threefold—educational, economic and social. The Government have, therefore, launched a three pronged drive with the object of eliminating these disabilities within the shortest possible time.

The educational disability is tackled by instituting a large number of scholarships, general concession of free studentships, payment of examination fees, provision for hostel facilities for students studying at all stages of education—primary, secondary and collegiate, etc. Special *ashram* schools are also opened with a view to spreading education amongst the backward classes.

CHAPTER 17. Other Social Services. SOCIAL WELFARE. Measures of Uplift.

Economic disability is attempted to be removed by the economic rehabilitation of the backward classes. This is mainly effected by (i) grant of cultivable waste lands and other facilities such as undertaking development of land, bunding, supply of plough, bullocks, implements, seeds, etc., for rehabilitating backward classes in agriculture, (ii) establishing training centres for imparting training in hereditary crafts and providing financial help for their rehabilitation in various cottage industries; (iii) imbibing the idea of co-operative movement in their day-to-day life, providing them all facilities provided by the State under special additional concessions and safeguards for backward classes; (iv) introducing special measures for housing of backward classes and (v) by reserving certain percentage of vacancies for backward classes in service under State Government, local bodies and semi-Government organisations.

The social drawback is attempted to be removed by undertaking social welfare activities. This is designed to remove the stigma of untouchability in respect of scheduled castes, assimilation of scheduled tribes in the general population without destroying their hereditary traits and rehabilitation of ex-criminal tribes and nomadic and semi-nomadic tribes from among the category of other backward classes. Legislation as well as propaganda through the voluntary agencies are the means used to achieve this object. Mention may be made here of the Untouchability Offences Act, 1955, passed by the Government of India to stop the observance of untouchability.

With the liberal assistance of the Central Government under Article 275 (i) of the Constitution of India (amounting to 50 per cent of the expenditure on the schemes other than education and 75 per cent on educational schemes), various measures are undertaken by the State Government for the uplift of scheduled castes, scheduled tribes, *vimukta jatis* and other backward classes under the Five-Year Plans. These measures are framed after taking into consideration the felt needs of these sections of backward classes and with a view to achieving their economic uplift and settlement and removal of their social disabilities. Besides this, the Government of India has also sponsored on cent per cent basis a special programme estimated to cost Rs. 3.53 crores for the welfare of backward classes in the Maharashtra State which includes the opening of 18 multipurpose projects in scheduled areas of the State, along with other measures for the welfare of scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and *vimukta jatis*.

In the implementation of these backward class welfare measures, advice and co-operation is also sought from eminent social workers and voluntary organisations through the State Board for Harijan Welfare and the State Tribes Advisory Council. All these, social, economic and educational measures taken by the Government are sure to go a long way in eradicating untouchability with the educational and economic uplift of the backward classes.

Administrative Set-up.

The Social Welfare Office came into existence in the district from 1955. Number of schemes are being implemented by this office for the welfare of scheduled castes, *vimukta jatis* and nomadic and semi-nomadic tribes from the year 1959-60. The number of persons belonging to scheduled tribes in the district is 550. Out of the total population of 12,30,716 harijans numbered 101,834. From May 1, 1962, this department was amalgamated with the Zilla Parishad with all its staff, under the direct control of the Chief Executive Officer. According to the Zilla Parishad Act, the Social Welfare department is directly under the control of the Chief Executive Officer, President of Zilla Parishad and Standing Committee. The Chief Executive Officer has delegated almost all his powers to the Social Welfare Officer relating to the social welfare section to implement the schemes. The Standing Committee has also appointed a sub-committee of Zilla Parishad consisting of the President of the Zilla Parishad, all Harijan members of the Zilla Parishad, two non-backward class members of the Standing Committee and the Social Welfare Officer. who also acts as the Secretary, for selecting the applications of the beneficiaries.

The Block Development Officers of Panchayat Samitis receive the applications from backward classes from their talukas. The Block Development Officers, Extension Officers of the blocks and the Social Welfare Officer carefully watch the follow-up programme regarding the proper utilisation of help given to the backward classes.

To give wide publicity to the schemes in the rural areas, the publicity van with cinema equipment is attached to this section. One Social Welfare Inspector and other ministerial staff help the Social Welfare Officer in the implementation of the schemes. Propaganda of the schemes in each taluka is undertaken jointly by the official and non-official agencies.

Progress of Schemes.

During the First Five-Year Plan, the tuition fees and scholarships etc. to the backward classes were given directly by the Director of School Welfare. During the Second Five-Year Plan period (1956-57 to 1960-61), *i.e.*, up to the year 1957-58, the educational schemes were implemented by the Education department. From the year 1958-59, these educational schemes are being implemented by the Social Welfare department.

All the backward class students were given tuition fee concessions at all stages of education regardless of age and income. From the year 1962-63, the concessions to post-S.S.C. courses are paid by the Director of Social Welfare directly. From the year 1962-63, the tuition fees to the courses are paid by the Zilla Parishad. The concession to the backward classes on caste basis were stopped from 1959-60 onwards.

The examination fees for all recognised examinations were paid to the students of backward classes at all stages of education during the Second Five-Year Plan. From 1962-63, the

CHAPTER 17. Other Social Services. SOCIAL WELFARE. Progress of Schemes.

fees of college students are paid directly by the Director of Social Welfare.

Backward class students were paid lump-sum scholarships on merit-*cum*-income basis. Scholarships to collegiate students are paid by the Director of Social Welfare. The scholarships are paid to the scheduled castes, scheduled tribes, nomadic and semi-nomadic tribes and *vimukta jatis* on the following unified rates from 1961-62:—

(1) Standard 1st and IInd—Rs. 3 per annum.

(2) Standard IIIrd and IVth—Rs. 6 per annum.

(3) Standard Vth to VIIth—Rs. 30 per annum.

(4) Standard VIIIth to XIth (I)—Rs. 20 per month for the first two backward class students who secure a minimum of 50 per cent of marks in the previous annual examination and rank within the first ten students in each class. Every student who secures 50 per cent or more marks in the previous annual examination is paid Rs. 10 per month while the students who secure less than 50 per cent are paid Rs. 5 per month subject to the availability of funds. Every student opting for professional courses gets Rs. 25 per month while the student in technical high school or higher technical school is paid Rs. 90 per annum.

The concessions in tuition fees were paid to the students the income of whose parents was less than Rs. 900 per annum from the year 1959-60 (IInd Plan period). This limit of income was raised from Rs. 900 to Rs. 1,200 per annum from the year 1960-61. From 1961-62, this scheme has been transferred to the Education department. During these two years, an amount of Rs. 12,23,888 was spent on the scheme from which 19,274 students benefited.

Expenditure.

The expenditure over educational concessions including economically backward class scheme was Rs. 17,05,916 and 32,938 students benefited as a result during the Second Five-Year Plan. During the first two years of the Third Five-Year Plan (1961-62 and 1962-63), an expenditure of Rs. 2,40,684 had been incurred over these concessions and 5,799 students were benefited.

Hostels.

There are 38 backward class hostels with more than 1,200 inmates. Besides there are six cosmopolitan hostels in which backward class and non-backward class students are provided accommodation. The backward class students in cosmopolitan hostels are paid actual boarding and lodging charges. The department also subsidises the building rent of the hostels to the extent of 50 per cent.

Up to the end of the First Five-Year Plan, an amount of Rs. 5,80,213 was spent over 3,780 students. The expenditure over hostel facilities during the IInd Plan period was Rs. 4,89,815 and 3,149 students were benefited from it. During the first two

years of the Third Five-Year Plan, a sum of Rs. 5,19,499 was spent and 2,478 students were benefited by the hostel facilities. The grant-in-aid to hostel buildings was paid as under:—

First Plan—Rs. 25,000 (One hostel).

Second Plan—Rs. 58,137 (Five hostels).

Third Plan—Rs. 61,814 (Four hostels).

Sanskar Kendras.

At the beginning of the Second Five-Year Plan, one *Sanskar Kendra* was recognised. One more was recognised during the year 1959-60. Two more *Sanskar Kendras* were recognised in the Third Five-Year Plan. The expenditure incurred over these *Kendras* amounted to Rs. 10,960 during IInd Plan and Rs. 9,332 in the IIIrd Plan. Harijan and caste Hindu women took benefit of this scheme. *Sanskar Kendras* at present are located at Sawalaj and Ramanandnagar in Tasgaon taluka, at Kokrud in Shirala taluka and at Dhavadwadi in Jath taluka.

Balwadi.

One *Balwadi* was recognised during the IInd Plan period in the year 1956-57. The expenditure incurred on this *Balwadi* during the Second and the Third Plan period (only two years) amounted to Rs. 7,193 and Rs. 3,396, respectively. Nearly 30 to 40 Harijan and caste Hindu students are taking advantage of this scheme. The *Balwadi* at Charan was shifted to Kokrud from the year 1962-63.

Economic Uplift of Backward Classes.

Scheduled Castes.

There were no schemes for the economic uplift of backward classes in the First Five-Year Plan. However, these schemes were included from the year 1959-60 (IInd Plan period). Schemes regarding grant of loan-*cum*-subsidy for cottage industries; grant of loan-*cum*-subsidy for purchase of milch cattle; repairs to houses of scheduled castes in rural areas; repairs to wells in or near scheduled caste localities and drinking water wells under Centrally Sponsored Programme etc. were implemented and a sum of Rs. 42,550 was spent over these schemes. The benefit of these schemes was taken by 184 persons. Nineteen wells were constructed and seven repaired.

During the first two years of the Third Five-Year Plan an expenditure of Rs. 55,480 was incurred and 346 persons benefited. Twenty wells were constructed and seventeen were repaired.

Vimukta Jatis.

During the IInd Plan, schemes were implemented by the Agriculture Department through the Collector till 1958-59. From the year 1959-60, the schemes as indicated below are being implemented by the Social Welfare Department such as supply of milch cattle, supply of seeds, propagation of improved agricultural implements, supply of plough bullocks, grant of loan-*cum*-subsidy for cottage industries and professions, and supply of clothes or spinning wheels to the *Vimukta Jati* students in primary schools, etc., and an amount of Rs. 6,587 as subsidy and Rs. 900 as loan were spent. In all, 547 beneficiaries were given this help. During the first two years of the IIIrd Plan period, all the above schemes except propagation of improved agricultural implements were

CHAPTER 17. Other Social Services. SOCIAL WELFARE.

implemented. Moreover, one *sevak* was also appointed for the uplift of the *Vimukta Jatis* from the year 1961-62. The expenditure incurred over these schemes was Rs. 8,760. 258 persons took benefit of the same.

Economic uplift of Backward Classes. *Nomadic and Semi-Nomadic Tribes.*

No scheme was implemented for these communities during the First Plan. During the Second Plan, special measures for the economic uplift of nomadic and semi-nomadic tribes were implemented. The expenditure incurred over these schemes during the IInd Plan was Rs. 4,226. One well was also constructed for this community at Malegaon in Miraj taluka. During the Third Plan, special measures for economic uplift of nomadic and semi-nomadic tribes were implemented and Rs. 3,000 were spent on the same with 26 persons taking benefit.

Other Backward Classes.

No scheme was implemented for the other backward classes during the First and the Second Five-Year Plans. However, the following schemes for the welfare of Nav-Buddhas, who are included in other backward classes, were implemented during the first two years of Third Five-Year Plan.

(1) propagation of improved agricultural implements, (2) grant of loan-*cum*-subsidy for cottage industries and professions, (3) grant of loan-*cum*-subsidy for purchase of milch cattle, and (4) digging of drinking water wells.

The expenditure over these schemes during the first two years of the Third Five-Year Plan was Rs. 5,535 as subsidy and Rs. 4,425 as loan. The number of persons benefited was 55.

Removal of Untouchability

The scheme incorporating an award of prizes to villages which show outstanding work in the removal of untouchability was implemented during the First Plan and prizes of the value Rs. 4,500 were awarded to six villages for the remarkable work in the field of removal of untouchability.

During the Second Five-Year Plan, schemes like social *melas* and entertainment programmes, award of prizes to villages, intensification of untouchability drive, provision of building sites for harijans in rural areas, subsidy to caste Hindu landlords for letting their premises on hire to harijans in rural areas, and publicity to scheduled caste welfare measures etc. were implemented. The expenditure incurred over these schemes amounted to Rs. 15,542, 61 persons taking benefit of the same. Gatherings, *melas* and *Ashprishyata Nivaran Din* and *saptah* were also celebrated. A committee at taluka level with mamlatdar as its President was formed. Social Welfare sub-committee of the District Development Board was formed for this purpose and monthly meetings were held to discuss the problems of harijans.

During the Third Five-Year Plan, all the above schemes were continued. Moreover colonisation of scheduled castes and *kirtan* programmes were added at a total expenditure of Rs. 32,504 with 116 beneficiaries. Two colonies of 25 houses,

one at Tung (Miraj) and other at Ghogaon (Tasgaon) were completed during the year 1961-62 and Rs. 18,800 were spent over this scheme for 25 persons.

Centrally Sponsored Programme.

No scheme was implemented under this head during the First Plan. From the Second Five-Year Plan, two schemes pertaining to the construction of houses for scheduled castes and drinking-water wells were implemented in this district. The scheme for the construction of houses for scheduled castes was implemented through the Collector from the year 1958-59. An amount of Rs. 750 was paid for each house. During the Second Plan, 57 persons took the benefit of the scheme at a total cost of Rs. 41,536.

The scheme of construction of wells for harijans was started during the Second Plan. The work was entrusted to the then District Local Board and Rs. 24,125 were paid to the Board for construction. The District Local Board constructed 62 wells for the harijans incurring the additional expenditure from its own resources.

The schemes regarding employment, legal aid to backward classes, grant-in-aid to *Kustigirs*, waste land distribution, co-operative housing and co-operative agriculture were also implemented.

ADMINISTRATION OF MANAGED ESTATES

MANAGED ESTATES.

On many occasions, the Government takes over the management of the estates of minors, lunatics and persons who are incapable of managing their own property in order to secure due care and management of the estates concerned. There are two pieces of legislation which govern such administrative take-over; one in the Bombay Court of Wards Act (I of 1905) and the other, an Union Act, the Guardians and Wards Act (VII of 1890). In the case of persons incapable of managing their own property, assumption of superintendence of the estates is undertaken only when the estate is encumbered with debt or is mismanaged or has no one capable of taking proper care of it, and Government is of opinion that it is expedient in the public interest to preserve the property of the person for the benefit of his family and the property is of such value that economical management by the Government agency is practicable.

Court of Wards Act.

Under the Bombay Court of Wards Act, the Collector of Sangli is the Court of Wards within the limits of his jurisdiction. The State Government has, however, powers to appoint, in lieu of the Collector, either a special officer or a board consisting of two or more officers to be the Court of Wards. Delegation of powers of the Court of Wards to the Collector, Assistant or Deputy Collector is provided for. The Court of Wards is empowered to assume the superintendence of the property of

CHAPTER 17. — Other Social Services. MANAGED ESTATES. Court of Wards Act.

the landholder or of any pension holder who is "disqualified to manage his own property". Those who are deemed to be disqualified are (*a*) minors, (*b*) females declared by the District Court as unfit to manage their own property, (*c*) persons declared by the District Court to be incapable of managing or unfit to manage their own property and (*d*) persons adjudged by a competent Civil Court to be of unsound mind and hence incapable of managing their affairs. The Court of Wards, however, cannot assume superintendence of the property, of any minor for the management of whose property a caretaker has been appointed by will or other instrument or under section 7 (i) of the Guardians and Wards Act.

In 1957, there were three estates under the superintendence of the Collector of Sangli as Court of Wards. The net income and the total recurring expenditure on account of these estates was Rs. 11,175 and Rs. 6,336, respectively.

Guardians and Wards Act.

There were no estates under the management of the Collector of Sangli under the Guardians and Wards Act prior to 9th June 1964. In 1953, Government under G.R.R.D. No. 2521/49, dated 4-9-1953, decided to entrust the work of management of minors' estates to the Collector of the district consequent upon the separation of the judiciary from the executive. Accordingly, 31 estates were transferred from the District Judge, Sangli, on 9-6-1954 by appointing the Collector as Guardian of the property of the said estates in place of the Deputy *Nazir* who was managing these estates as Guardian of the property. In 1957, there were 29 estates under the management and their total income was Rs. 41,300. The State Government have delegated the powers of the Collector in this behalf to the Resident Deputy Collector of Sangli for the purpose of the said Act in Sangli district.

CHARITY COMMISSIONER

CHARITY COMMISSIONER. Bombay Public Trusts Act.

Prior to 1950, the Religious and Charitable Trusts in the State were governed under various enactments Central as well as Provincial. In 1950, a composite legislation called the Bombay Public Trusts Act, (XXIX of 1950) was passed, which could be made applicable to all public trusts without distinction of religion. This Act defines "Public Trust" as "an express or constructive trust for either a public religious or charitable purpose or both, and includes a temple, a *math*, a *wakf*, a *dharmada* or any religious or charitable endowment and a society formed either for a religious or charitable purpose or for both and registered under the Societies Registration Act (XXI of 1860)".

The State Government is empowered to apply this Act to any public Trust or class of public trusts and on such application the provisions of previous acts cease to apply to such trust or class of trusts. The Act has been made applicable in all the regions of the State to the following classes of public trusts:—

(1) temples;
(2) *maths*;
(3) *wakfs*;

(4) public trusts other than (1), (2) and (3) above created or existing solely for the benefit of any community or communities or any section or sections thereof;

CHARITY COMMISSIONER. Bombay Public Trusts Act.

(5) societies formed either for religious or charitable purposes or for both registered under the Societies Registration Act, 1960;

(6) *dharmadas, i.e.* any amounts which, according to the custom or usage of any business or trade or agreement between the parties relating to any transaction, are charged to any party to the transaction or collected under whatever name is being intended to be used for a charitable or religious purpose; and

(7) all other trusts, express or constructive, for either a public religious or charitable purpose or for both.

The Act has not been made applicable to the charitable endowments vested in the Treasurer of Charitable Endowments under provisions of the Charitable Endowments Act (VI of 1890).

The Charity Commissioner with headquarters at Bombay administers the Act. An Assistant Charity Commissioner heads the Kolhapur Region with jurisdiction over the districts of Kolhapur, Satara, Sangli and Ratnagiri. The Assistant Charity Commissioner is directly responsible to the Charity Commissioner.

The Act imposed a duty on the trustee of a public trust to which the Act has been applied to make an application for the registration of the trust within three months of the application of the Act, or its creation giving particulars specified in the Act, which include (*a*) the approximate value of moveable and immoveable property owned by the trust, (*b*) the gross average annual income of the trust property and (*c*) the amount of average annual expenditure of the trust. No registration is, however, necessary in the case of *dharmadas* which are governed under the special provisions of the Act in certain respects. Trusts registered under any of the previous acts are deemed to be registered under this Act.

Public Trusts.

The following statement furnishes statistics relating to the Public Trusts from Sangli district registered at the Public Trusts Registration Office, Kolhapur Region, Kolhapur, till 30th June 1963.

TABLE No. 1

PUBLIC TRUSTS IN SANGLI DISTRICT—PROPERTY, INCOME AND EXPENDITURE

Section	Total number of Trusts registered	Value of property		Gross average annual income	Average annual expenditure
		Moveable	Immoveable		
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
'A' (Trusts for the benefit of Hindus)	1,067	9,41,210	48,46,337	7,97,541	2,38,773
'B' (Trusts for the benefit of Muslims)	198	4,12,527	9,72,191	72,341	71,732
'C' (Trusts for the benefit of Parsees)	..	..	..	..	..
'D' (Trusts for the benefit of Christians)	15	36,774	1,42,050	9,272	2,036
'E' (Trusts for the benefit of any particular community)	183	43,55,477	71,06,622	15,64,070	9,65,129
'F' (Trusts registered under the Societies Registration Act, 1960).	87	5,16,831	19,62,445	9,36,940	2,39,322

A registration fee ranging from Rs. 3 to Rs. 25 is levied depending on the value of the property of the public trust. An annual contribution at the rate of two per cent of the gross annual income is also recovered which is credited to the Public Trusts Administration Fund created under the Act. The contribution does not form part of the general revenues of the State. Public trusts exclusively for the purpose of advancement and propagation of secular education or medical relief and public trusts having gross annual income of Rs. 1,000 or less are exempted from the payment of this contribution. Deductions from the gross annual income for computing contribution are allowed in respect of amounts spent on the advancement and propagation of secular education, medical relief, donations, grants received from Government or local authorities, interest on depreciation or sinking fund, taxes to be paid to Government or local authority, etc.

The contribution is levied on the net annual profits in the case of public trusts conducting a business or trade.

Every trustee has to keep regular accounts of the trust which have to be audited annually by chartered accountants or persons authorised under the Act. A chartered accountant can audit accounts of any public trust but the persons authorised under the Act are permitted to audit accounts only of public trusts having a gross annual income of Rs. 3,000 or less. The auditor has to submit a report to the Deputy or Assistant Charity Commissioner of his region, on a number of points such as whether accounts are maintained according to law and regularly, whether an inventory has been maintained of the moveables of the public trust, whether any property or funds of the trust have been applied on an object or purpose not authorised by the trust, whether the funds of the trust have been invested or immoveable property alienated contrary to the provisions of the Act, etc.

If on a consideration of the report of the auditor or of a report, if any, made by an officer authorised under section 37, the accounts and explanation, if any, furnished by the trust or any other person concerned, the Deputy or Assistant Charity Commissioner is satisfied that the trustee or any other person has been guilty of gross negligence, breach of trust or misapplication or misconduct resulting in a loss to the trust, he has to report to the Charity Commissioner, who after due inquiry, determines the loss, if any, caused to the trust and surcharges the amount on the person found responsible for it. No sale, mortgage, exchange or gift of any immoveable property and no lease for a period exceeding ten years in the case of agricultural land and three years in the case of non-agricultural land or building belonging to the public trust is valid without the previous sanction of the Charity Commissioner. The trustee of a public trust is bound to invest the surplus funds of the trust in public securities or first mortgage of immoveable property on

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certain conditions. For making an investment in any other forms, the permission of the Charity Commissioner must be obtained.

Application of funds by Cypres.

If the original object of a public trust fails wholly or partially, if there is surplus income or balance not likely to be utilised, or in the case of a public trust, other than a trust for religious purpose if it is not in the public interest expedient, practicable, desirable, necessary or proper to carry out, wholly or partially, the original intention of the author of the public trust or the object for which the public trust was created an application can be made to the District Court or the City Civil Court, Bombay, as the case may be, for application cypres of the property, or income of the public trust or any of its portion.

If there is a breach of trust or a declaration is necessary that a particular property is the property of a public trust or a direction is required to recover the possession of such property or a direction is required for the administration of any public trust, two or more persons, having an interest in the trust or the Charity Commissioner can file a suit in the District Court or City Civil Court, Bombay, as the case may be, to obtain reliefs mentioned in the Act. If the Charity Commissioner refuses consent, an appeal lies to the Bombay Revenue Tribunal constituted under the Bombay Revenue Tribunal Act (XII of 1939). The Charity Commissioner can also file such a suit on his own motion.

Charity Commissioner as Trustee.

The Charity Commissioner may with his consent be appointed as a trustee of a public trust by a Court or by the author of a trust, provided his appointment is made as a sole trustee. The Court is, however, not empowered to appoint the Charity Commissioner as a trustee of a religious public trust. In case when the Charity Commissioner is appointed as a trustee, he may levy administrative charges on these trusts as prescribed in the rules framed under the Act.

Inquiries by Assessors.

Inquiries regarding the registration of a public trust or regarding the loss caused to a public trust or public trusts registered under the previous acts, in consequence of the act or conduct of a trustee or any other person, have to be conducted with the aid of assessors not less than three and not more than five in number. The assessors have to be selected, as far as possible, from the religious denomination of the public trust to which the inquiry relates. The presence of assessors can, however, be dispensed with in inquiries where there is no contest. A list of assessors has to be prepared and published in the Official Gazette every three years. Districtwise lists of assessors have already been prepared and published in the Maharashtra Government Gazette.

Charitable Endowments.

The Charity Commissioner is deemed to be and to have always been the Treasurer of Charitable Endowments for the

CHARITY COMMISSIONER.

Charitable Endowments.

State of Maharashtra, appointed under the provisions of the Charitable Endowments Act, 1890. In the case of religious and charitable institutions and Endowments which vest in or the management of which vests in the State Government, they are to be transferred and vested in the Committees of Management to be appointed by the State Government for each district. The Charity Commissioner is invested with power of inquiry into the duties of these Committees and to direct expenses in respect thereof to be paid from the funds belonging to the Endowments.

Punishment.

Contraventions of the Act amount to offences and are punishable with fine ranging from Rs. 500 to Rs. 1,000 depending on the nature of contravention. The Charity Commissioner is the sole authority for launching prosecutions in the case of such contraventions.

CHAPTER 18—PUBLIC LIFE AND VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANIZATIONS

CHAPTER 18.

Public Life and Voluntary Social Service Organisations.

INTRODUCTION.

THE VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANISATIONS play a major role in the development of community life and also help to strengthen the social solidarity of the State. These organisations are run by the people and for the people. The voluntary social service is an activity of self governing body of people working together for the betterment of the society and community life as a whole.

In the past, the State and the individual stood far apart, the State performing the job of a legal functionary, leaving the individual to seek his own moral and intellectual development. With the change in the socio-political concepts, the relationship between the State and the individual also underwent a radical change. The State no longer remained an idle spectator of the active human member of the political organisation but started taking an increasing interest in his multifarious activities. Individual became the centre of the new renaissance and resurgence that was visible in the policies of the State. However, in spite of its vastness, the State could not tackle every aspect of the life of its citizens. There was uniformity in the actions of the State towards its citizens but uniformity is palatable up to a certain degree only. Individual behaviour based on subjective instincts is outside the scope of the State activity. It is here that social institutions replace the State. Eventhough, morally and legally they are subordinate to the State, they play a superior role to that of the State because they offer diversity to the individual amidst uniformity.

In a welfare state the Government has to perform manifold functions and hence it is difficult to look into every matter of an individual. It is also difficult for the State to look into every nook and corner of the society. It is, therefore, essential to have social organisations of the people with common interest. The activities of the State involve some element of compulsion, whereas in the case of voluntary institutions they are voluntary in nature and offer easy scope for an individual to develop. These institutions work hand in hand with the Government and their nature is complementary. They have proved very helpful

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and co-operative and not competitive with the state in the field. The voluntary social organisations are getting wider scope in these days of busy life. Where Governmental machinery falls short of looking into problems of an individual, the voluntary social organisations play their role in co-operation with the State.

As the voluntary social organisations are formed by the people they can grasp the needs of the people in the area and offer proper solutions to their problems. Such institutions can afford to make experiments. The voluntary actions involved on the part of individuals are always flexible and progressive and that is one of the reasons for the pioneering work done by the organisations in Sangli district.

In Sangli district there are many organisations working in various fields such as, education, health, recreation, etc.

The voluntary social service organisations, though helped by the Government, complain of inadequate finances. Many times they have to rely upon their own funds and donations collected from the public.

PUBLIC LIFE.

If not of foremost importance, at least of prime importance is the fourth estate as it is popularly called, *viz.*, the press. It educates public opinion and enriches public life.

In the following pages, efforts have been made to give a short resume of the voluntary social service organisations working in Sangli district.

Though the activities of voluntary social organisations help in creating healthy social atmosphere, yet the press is the powerful weapon in revealing public opinion. In fact the press takes leading initiative in creating political consciousness. It is the press which discusses freely and sympathetically the grievances of a common man.

Of the leading newspapers in the district, the *Navsandesh*, which is published in Marathi, is the most important. Besides, there are other papers, *viz., Satyavadi* and *Pudhari* which are published from Kolhapur and Sangli.

At present there are three dailies, 12 weeklies and five periodicals published from this district. Though, the means and measures of the dailies and weeklies differ their aim is much similar and they offer a place of prime importance to the news and burning political issues.

A list of the newspapers published from the Sangli district is given below:—

Dailies :

Navsandesh	.. ..	Sangli.
Satyavadi	.. ..	Kolhapur-Sangli.
Pudhari	..	Kolhapur-Sangli.

Weeklies :

Dakshin Maharashtra	..	Sangli.
Vijay	.. .. ..	Sangli.
Rayat	.. .. ..	Vita.
Lalkar	.. .. ..	Sangli.
Samadhan	.. ..	Sangli.
Krantinad	.. ..	Sangli.
Kisan	.. .. ..	Miraj.
Loknayak	.. ..	Miraj.
Harijan Sevak	.. ..	Miraj.
Janhit	.. .. ..	Miraj.
Agradoot	.. ..	Sangli.
Chirayu	.. .. ..	Miraj.

Fortnightlies :

Bedar	.. .. ..	Sangli.
Loksarathi	.. ..	Sangli.

Monthlies :

Nagarpalika Karbhar	..	Sangli.
Sabalsipai	.. ..	Sangli.

Trimonthly :

Purohit	.. .. ..	Vita.

VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS.

Sangli Education Society.

The Sangli Education Society was founded in September 1919 at Sangli with the object of imparting education to boys, girls and adults. The society was initially started with one high school but now has schools established all over the district.

In 1959, the society had a membership of 545. The members of the general body elect the council and the council in turn elects the chairman and vice-chairman. The chairman and the vice-chairman look after the administration of the society with the help of other respective bodies such as administrative body, executive body, life members' body and general body.

The society owns assets valued at Rs. 3.74,500. The annual income of the society in the year 1957-58 amounted to Rs. 31,131.94 paise whereas the expenditure amounted to Rs. 16,266.81 paise in the same year. Besides, the society receives grant-in-aid from Government. It also receives donations from public.

Nana Patil Boarding, Kundal.

The Nana Patil Boarding was founded in 1947 at Kundal with the object of starting educational institutions and hostels for poor and deserving students irrespective of caste and religion.

In 1962-63, the boarding had 147 students on its role. Attention is paid to the all round development of students. They are enabled to earn while they learn. The boarding received a grant-in-aid of Rs. 7,546 in 1961-62.

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The income of the boarding in the year 1962-63 amounted to Rs. 29,192.38 paise where as its expenditure amounted to Rs. 29,016.68 paise in the same year.

Bhairavnath Vasatigriha, Vita.

The *Bhairavnath Vasatigriha* was founded in 1947 at Vita with the object of providing lodging and boarding facilities to poor and needy students. The hostel is recognised by the Government. The hostel receives a grant of Rs. 5,600. Public donations are also received.

The executive board looks after the administration of the boarding. The boarding had a membership of 18 in 1957-58. The annual income of the boarding amounted to Rs. 5,000 in 1958-59 whereas its expenditure came to Rs. 8,000 in the same year.

Walwa Education Society, Islampur.

The *Walwa Education Society* was established in 1945 at Islampur with the object of providing facilities of education to backward classes by offering them equal opportunities. The society started its first secondary school, namely Vidya Mandir at Islampur in 1945. In 1953, the society opened a primary training college for men. In 1956, the physical training school and the S. T. C. Institute were started.

The society has assets and property valued at Rs. 60,000. The annual income of the society amounted to Rs. 1,34,566 in the year 1957-58 whereas its expenditure amounted to Rs. 1,35,323 in the same year.

Bhilwadi. Sanstha. Sanstha, Bhilwadi

The *Bhilwadi Shikshan Sanstha* was founded in 1949 at Bhilwadi in Tasgaon taluka. The society started its first secondary school in 1949 which was turned into a full fledged high school in 1953. The high school is also a centre where examinations in Hindi, Sanskrit, etc., are coducted. The management of the society is looked after by the four bodies, *viz.*, (1) The Council, (2) The Governing Council, (3) The Treasurer and the Trustees and (4) the Board of life members.

The society is housed in its own building constructed at a cost of Rs. 45,000.

The annual income of the society amounted to Rs. 31,705.15 paise whereas its expenditure amounted to Rs. 27,316.67 paise in the year 1958-59. The society receives grant-in-aid from the Government and the village panchayat.

Shikshan Prasarak Sanstha, Khanapur.

The *Shikshan Prasarak Sanstha* was established in 1933 at Khanapur with the object of conducting a hostel for poor students irrespective of their caste and religion. The society has also opened an agricultural farm to instruct students in agricultural operations. It also provides industrial education.

At present the society runs the student boarding at Khanapur, a Library and an Agricultural farm. The students are trained in various new methods of farming at its farm.

The boarding receives grant from Education and Social Welfare Department. The society has assets worth Rs. 15,000. The annual income of the society during 1959-60 amounted to Rs. 6,300 whereas its expenditure amounted to Rs. 6,000 in the same year.

Sangli Nagar Vachanalaya.

The *Sangli Nagar Vachanalaya* was founded at Sangli in 1879 and was known as 'Shri Dhudiraj Club'. Later in 1910 its name was changed to 'Native General Library'. In 1920 it was renamed as *Sangli Nagar Vachanalaya.* The institution aims at developing taste for good literature among the people in the district.

It has a membership of 1,000. The library possesses nearly 15,000 books on various subjects in various languages. It has also some rare manuscripts. The institution organises a series of lectures by eminent scholars on different subjects.

The subscribers, patrons and life members together constitute the managing body. The library is housed in its own building. It gets grant from the Government which amounts to Rs. 6,000. The town municipality also extends aid to the library.

Subscriptions from the members and donations from public are the main sources of the income of the library. The library has assets valued at Rs. 51,308. The income of the library amounted to Rs. 16,377.88 paise in the year 1962 whereas its expenditure came to Rs. 13,204 in the same year.

Shrimant Balasaheb Jubilee Library, Miraj.

The *Srimant Balasaheb Jubilee Library* was established in 1938 at Miraj. The library organises lectures of distinguished scholars and has established study circles to develop intellectual habits amongst its members. The library is run on the subscriptions received from the members. The library had a membership of 351 in 1958-59. The annual income of the library amounted to Rs. 4,445.83 paise in 1958-59 whereas its expenditure came to Rs. 4,439.50 during the same year.

Young Natya Club, Sangli.

The *Young Natya Club* was founded in 1956 at Sangli with the object of imparting social education to the rural folk. The other activities of the club include presenting entertainment programmes and dramas. The club had so far staged as many as fifteen dramas to help educational institutions. Besides, the club organises series of lectures by eminent dramatists. It also encourages various arts and the up and coming writers. The club receives grant from the Government. The construction of a theatre is on the plans of the club.

Velankar Balak Mandir.

The *Velankar Balak Mandir* was established in 1947 with the object of bringing up orphans and impart them the necessary education to become ideal citizens. The Central Social Welfare Board has extended grant-in-aid towards the construction of its main building. In 1961, there were 39 children in the institution. The annual income of the *Mandir* amounted to Rs. 33,747.44 in 1961-62 whereas its expenditure came to Rs. 33,747.44 in the same year.

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Miraj Medical Centre.

The Miraj Medical Centre consisting of the Wanless Hospital, a General Hospital, the Vail Memorial Cancer Institute, the School of Nursing and the Goheen Psychiatric Clinic, is located at Miraj, an important junction on the Poona-Belgaum section of the South Central Railway. Also in association with the Miraj Medical Centre are the Wanless Tuberculosis Sanatorium, now known as the Wanless Chest Hospital, situated at Wanlesswadi and the Richardson Leprosy Hospital about two and a half miles distant from it. The Miraj Medical Centre is a private charitable institution registered under the Bombay Public Trusts Act of 1950. The responsibility for its maintenance rests with a Board of Administration constituted for the purpose.

The history of this institution, mainly devoted to the medical and surgical needs of the poor and the rich alike, began with the setting up of a one room dispensary in 1891 in Miraj Bazar by Dr. William Wanless, a young Canadian missionary. The present hospital was formally opened in 1894. After the opening of the hospital Dr. Wanless selected a few students for informal teaching as apprentices from which grew the Miraj Medical School recognised in 1917 for the diploma of the College of Physicians and Surgeons of Bombay. However, the school had to be subsequently closed down.

Soon with the establishment of the hospital, the need of medical aids was increasingly felt and towards this end was founded in 1897 the School of Nursing under the superintendence of Miss Elizabeth Foster. It has since then steadily developed into one of the best nursing schools in Maharashtra. It has also quarters for the nurses and has been receiving substantial grants from the Government of India from time to time.

The Vail Memorial Cancer Institute and the Goheen Psychiatric Clinic were started in 1937 and 1955, respectively, and under the management of expert surgeons and physicians, have effectively served, the purpose for which they were set up. In 1963 the Radiology department and the Cancer Institute were moved in the new clinical building and a new diagnostic X-Ray machine costing about Rs. 1,35,000 was installed. For this purpose the Government of India had made a grant of Rs. 1,28,000 in 1962. The Goheen Psychiatric Clinic had its ups and downs, but the Centre admirably managed to keep it open for the patients, though not without temporary closures.

The Wanless Chest Hospital, better known to the general public as the Wanless Tuberculosis Sanatorium, was established in 1920 and has been doing so excellent a work since then, that it has attracted many patients coming from other States. It is to-day one of such premier institutions in the country and is equipped with modern surgical machinery to provide every kind of medical and surgical treatment. Thousands of patients take advantage of the expert medical aid, treatment and advice rendered by this institution. The Richardson Leprosy Hospital has also

been contributing its share in the minimisation of human sufferings. It is fully supported by the Mission to Lepers, but has been, since it was founded, under the medical supervision of the Centre. Number of patients who were admitted have left the hospital with reconstructed hands, and many more much improved.

Miraj Medical Centre.

In 1948, it was decided by the Indian Medical Council that medical schools training students for the licentiate diplomas in medicine should be discontinued. In keeping with this decision the last batch of students in the Medical School was admitted in 1948 and five years later when the students completed their course, the school closed down. With this, a chapter in the history of the Miraj Medical Centre came to a close.

But yet the hope of training more doctors, nurses and para-medical workers to meet the ever increasing need of this part of the country, was never given up, and with this end in view the Wanless general hospital was steadily improved, expanded and upgraded. In 1962 the Board of Administration of the Miraj Medical Centre entered into an agreement with the Government of Maharashtra to co-operate in the development of the Miraj Medical College. Towards this end an up-to-date new clinical block was opened in July 1963. It was inaugurated at an impressive function at the hands of the Ranisaheb of Sangli. In November of the same year the clinical teaching of the second year M.B. B.S. students of the Miraj Medical College was begun in the Wanless Hospital. Thus Wanless Hospital has become a teaching hospital for the Miraj Medical College. The hospital has steadily increased the beds to 411 (1963) including general ward, private rooms and cottages. To the existing ones new departments such as Orthopedics, Urology, Pathology, Obstetrics and Gynaecology, E. N. T., G. P. C., V. H. S., Dentistry, Dermatology and the like were added. These departments are not only well equipped but also staffed by highly qualified personnel. Training programmes for laboratory and X-Ray technicians have also been added. Offsetting these highly encouraging events are the financial difficulties, as the hospital expenditure has been steadily increasing and the income either remaining static or not increasing correspondingly.

The hospital has been recognised for imparting training for diplomas in Orthopedics, and in Gynaecology and Obstetrics. It has been very successful in this regard as is indicated by the 100 per cent pass record to-date in the Diploma Examinations of those who had their training here. The College of Physicians and Surgeons has been requested to grant recognition for training for diplomas in other specialities as well.

The institution has been working devotedly and selflessly since its inception, towards the betterment of the lot of the sickly and incapacitated. Though, the government makes grants from time to time, those hardly meet the needs and hence it has been and

is depending on the grants made by philanthropic men and women and charitable and other institutions.

Sir William Wanless Tuberculosis Sanatorium, Miraj.

The Sir Willim Wanless Tuberculosis Sanatorium was established in the year 1928 with the object of treating T.B. patients and patients having chest diseases. The sanatorium is fully equipped to provide every type of medical as well as surgical treatment to the patients. The surgical treatment includes all types of palmonary resection and other chest surgeries. There is also a Cardio-Vascular surgical unit where all kinds of cardiac operations including open heart surgery, are carried out.

The sanatorium is housed in its own building and is registered under the Bombay Public Trusts Act. The sanatorium works in co-operation with the Miraj medical centre situated at Miraj. Cardial surgery as well as open heart operations had earned a name for the hospital which attracts a number of patients from outside.

The State Government has reserved 25 beds in this sanatorium for the treatment of poor and deserving patients suffering from tuberculosis. The expenditure incurred on the reserved beds is also borne by the State Government.

At times, a capital grant is extended from Central Government for the purchase of instruments. The day-to-day expenditure is met by the management. The annual income of the sanatorium amounted to Rs. 11,29,110 in the year 1962-63 whereas its expenditure amounted to Rs. 12,19,780 in the same year.

Laththe Education Society, Sangli.

The Laththe Education Society was established in June, 1951, at Sangli with the object of spreading education.

The society runs the following institutions:—

(1) Mahatma Gandhi Shishu Vihar (Montessori), Sangli.

(2) Practising School, Kasturba Adhyapika Vidyalaya, Sangli.

(3) Kasturba Adhyapika Vidyalaya (Women's Training College), Sangli.

(4) Bedkihal-Shamanewadi High School (full fledged) Belgaum-Mysore State.

(5) Sangli High School, Sangli (Technical, Commerce and Academic).

(6) Sangli College (Arts, Science and Commerce), Sangli (Established in 1960).

The society is housed in its own building wherein is also situated the high school and the college run by the society. The administration of the society is looked after by four councils. The Sangli High School is fully equipped with all modern appliances and provides facilities required for technical education.

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The Sangli College is a full fledged college with facilities in Arts, Science and Commerce. The Government of Maharashtra extended grant worth Rs. one lakh in 1964.

The annual income of the society amounted to Rs. 4,21,063.32 paise in the year 1964 whereas the expenditure of the institution came to Rs. 3,95,710.96 in the same year.

Panjarpol Sanstha, Sangli.

The *Panjarpol Sanstha,* Sangli, was established in 1904 with the object of supplying pure milk to the people. It maintains handicapped and helpless animals. The institution is housed in its own building. It had a membership of 275 in 1959. The cows are given to the people for maintenance and milk is supplied free of charge to the poor and needy persons. For the first five years since its inception the institution received grant-in-aid of Rs. 2,000 per year. Now it receives grant of Rs. 100 per year from the Department of Animal Husbandry. The annual income of the institution amounted to Rs. 20,000 in 1958-59 whereas its annual expenditure came to Rs. 25,000 during the same year.

Sarvodaya Shikshan Mandal, Sangli.

The *Sarvodaya Shikshan Mandal* was established in June, 1949, at Sangli with the object of imparting education through primary and secondary institutions and by *mulodyoga* method in Arts, Science and Industry to the general public. Its aim is also to create a taste for such education especially in *Vadar* and other backward communities and to foster its growth among them. The mandal plans to start a residential high school. It has also envisaged a scheme for providing the students' employment opportunities and thus realise the ideal of 'earn while you learn.' The *mandal* started its hostel in 1960. It runs the following schools—

(1) Sarvodaya Shikshan Mandir,

(2) Sarvodaya High School, and

(3) Sarvodaya Hostel.

The *mandal* received grants from the Government and donations from the public towards the cost of construction of its building. The annual income of the *mandal* amounted to Rs. 56,754.72 paise whereas its expenditure came to Rs. 65,294.82 paise in 1961-62.

Revansidh Vidyarthi Vasatigraha, Devnagar.

The *Revansidh Vidyarthi Vasatigraha* was founded in June, 1951, at Devnagar with the object of imparting education to the people from backward areas. The executive bodies look after the administration of the *vasatigraha* which include the general body, the managing body and the trust body. The office bearers of the general body are the chairman, the vice-chairman and a secretary. The institution received a grant of Rs. 5,143 from the Government in 1962.

Young Mens' Model Education Society, Sangli.

The *Young Mens' Model Education Society* was founded in August, 1939, at Sangli with the object of propagating education by establishing educational institutions. The society aims at

CHAPTER 18. Public Life and Voluntary Social Service Organisations. VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS. Young Mens' Model Education Society, Sangli

impartng education at primary, middle and high school levels and also technical education. The management of the society is looked after by an administrative board which consists of a president, a vice-president and a secretary.

In 1962-63 the society had a membership of 200. The society conducts the following institutions:—

(1) Shri Ganpatrao Arwade High School, Sangli.
(2) Ratilal Viththaldas Gosaliya Nutan Marathi Vidya Mandir.
(3) Balak Mandir.
(4) Rifle Club.
(5) Sanskar Mandir.

The State Government had given Rs. 10,000 as grant-in-aid to the society whereas from the Central Government it received Rs. 20,000 as grant. The society holds in reserve Rs. 60,000 in the form of loans and deposits received from the public. The donations received by the society amounted to Rs. 4 lakhs. In 1962-63 the income and the expenditure of the society amounted to Rs. 1,30,000. The society received grant-in-aid to the tune of Rs. 44,000 in 1962-63 from the Government.

Shikshan Sahayak Mandal, Vita.

The *Shikshan Sahayak Mandal* was founded in March 1950, with the object of co-ordinating and helping the educational movements with a view to achieving substantial progress in the field of education. It had a membership of 25 in 1962-63.

The institution was donated a plot of land admeasuring 3.44 hectares (8 acres and 20 gunthas) where a hostel having 12 rooms and a high school building were constructed in 1951. To meet the cost of construction a sum of Rs. 20,000 was advanced by the Sangli Education Society. For the construction of six rooms of the hostel on the first floor, the *mandal* received grant of Rs. 6,000 from the Government.

The property possessed by the *mandal* is worth Rs. 50,000. The Mahatma Gandhi *Vidya Mandir* run by the Sangli Education Society, is housed in the building owned by the *mandal*.

Hindi Granthalaya Sangh.

The *Hindi Granthalaya Sangh* was established in November 1957, with the object of spreading Hindi language. The Sangh has an Executive Board to look after its administration and is composed of a president, a chairman of the managing committee and a secretary. The Sangh, runs a library *viz.*, *Muktadvar Vachanalaya*. Besides the Sangh arranges lectures on various subjects by scholars in the field, in Hindi language. The Sangh also conducts elocution competitions as well as essay competitions in Hindi.

The Sangh has assets valued at Rs. 4,323. The annual income and expenditure of the Sangh amounted to Rs. 2,500 in 1962-63. The Sangh received donations to the tune of Rs. 840 from the public in the year 1962-63.

Maharashtra Natyakala Mandal, Mahadeowadi.

The *Maharashtra Natyakala Mandal*, was established in 1942 at Mahadeowadi (Peth) with the object of providing recreation to the public. The activities of the mandal consist in staging different Marathi dramas. Every year on the new year day the mandal stages a drama enacted by local people. In 1961-62 the mandal had a membership of 20.

Mahila Mandal, Islampur.

The *Mahila Mandal*, Islampur, was founded in 1940 with the object of fostering a sense of equality among women belonging to different social groups.

The Mahila Mandal is a branch of the Akhil Bharatiya Mahila Parishad and is looked after by the executive board composed of a president, a vice-president and a secretary. The mandal had a membership of 80 in 1963. The mandal runs a *balwadi* where 35 children were admitted in 1963. It also conducts a tailoring class. In 1963 the attendance was 13.

The annual income as well as the expenditure of the mandal amounted to Rs. 2,041.31 in the year 1963. The Social Welfare Board of the Maharashtra State gave an amount of Rs. 300 as a grant to the mandal in 1962-63.

Ashta General Library.

The Ashta General Library was established at Ashta in 1928 with the object of providing library facilities to the common readers. The institution was registered under the Public Trusts Act in 1956. In the year 1962 the library had a membership of 283. Most of the Marathi as well as English dailies, weeklies and Marathi magazines are made available to the readers.

The library has assets valued at Rs. 8,386 which consists of books, cupboards and other furniture.

The library is housed in rented premises. The library receives a yearly grant of Rs. 849. The annual expenditure of the library amounted to Rs. 1,556.83 in the year 1962. In the same year it received Rs. 292 as donations from the public.

Women's Education Society, Sangli.

The Women's Education Society was established in 1933 with the object of popularising education amongst women by providing adequate educational facilities to them. The society opened its account with the establishment of its first school, namely, Rani Saraswatidevi High School which has a special provision for teaching Home Science to girls studying from Standard VIII to XI. The other branch of the institution known as Mahila Vidyalaya, provides instructions in tailoring, embroidery, etc. The society also runs a ladies hostel which provides lodging facilities to the girl students of Rani Saraswatidevi High School.

The Government has extended a grant-in-aid towards the construction of the building for the society. The annual income of the society during 1963-64 amounted to Rs. 35,775 whereas its expenditure came to Rs. 18,014 in the same year.

CHAPTER 18. Public Life and Voluntary Social Service Organisations. VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS. Willingdon College, Sangli.

The Willingdon College, Sangli, was founded in 1919 with the object of providing higher education to the students with minimum expenditure on their part. The College is run by the Deccan Education Society, Poona. It is situated at Vishrambag near Sangli and is now affiliated to Shivaji University, Kolhapur.

The total number of students on the roll in the year 1963-64 was 1,369. The College provides post-graduate instructions in various subjects and has a well-equipped library.

The College receives grants from the Government as well as from the University Grants Commission. The annual income of the College in 1964-65 amounted to Rs. 7,03,565 whereas its expenditure came to Rs. 7,55,710 during the same year.

Walchand College of Engineering, Sangli.

The Maharashtra Technical Education Society, Poona, inaugurated this college in 1947 at Sangli to meet the increasing demand for facilities in technical education in the Sangli district. The management of the college is vested in a council composed of 12 members. It had a strength of 150 in the year 1963-64.

In the year 1964 the college had assets valued at Rs. 47,50,000. The Walchand Hirachand memorial trust has donated Rs. 3,00,000 to the college. The college also receives grants from the Government. The annual income of the college in 1964-65 amounted to Rs. 3,06,000 whereas its expenditure came to Rs. 8,50,000 in the same year.

Hind Education Society, Miraj

The Hind Education Society was founded in 1921 at Miraj with the object of extending facilities in primary and secondary education in Miraj taluka. The society opened its first school in 1921, *viz*., R. M. High School, Miraj. Now the society runs five schools. In 1964 the society had a membership of 25. The secretary looks after the administration of the society. The institution received grant of Rs. 25,000 from the Government in 1964.

The annual income and the expenditure of the society amounted to Rs. 30,000 in 1964.

CHAPTER 19 — PLACES

AITAVADE BK.

Aitavaḍe Bk. (POP. 4,651), A VILLAGE IN VALVA *tālukā* lying 14.48 km (nine miles) south-west of Islāmpūr, is the birthplace of the late Śrī Bhāurav Pāṭil, the well-known educationist and social worker. It has five primary schools, a high school, a post office and a dispensary. Bananas and betel-leaves are grown here in abundance and hence the village is nicknamed as *Kelyānce Aitavaḍe.* Weekly bazar is held on Tuesdays. A few of the inhabitants are engaged in the manufacture of bricks, there being a co-operative society of the brick manufacturers. There are temples dedicated to Māruti, Rāmeśvar and Gaṇapati and a Jain *Basti.*

ANKALKHOP.

Aṅkalkhop (pop. 5.573). is a village in Tāsgāṅv *tālukā* 6.43 km (4 miles) north-east of Aṣṭā and 17.70 km (4 miles- west of the *tālukā* headquarters. It lies on the right bank of the Kṛṣṇā. A bridge across the river connects Aṅkalkhop with Bhilavaḍī which is immediately opposite Aṅkalkhop and a road leads to Tāsgāṅv and Aṣṭā. It depends for its prosperity on the rich produce of the black soil of the Kṛṣṇā valley, lift irrigation being very popular. There are four lift irrigation schemes equipped with nearly 80 oil engines and 30 electric motors. The area under sugarcane alone is nearly 526 hectares (1,300 acres). Besides seven primary schools there is a high school, a library, a post office, a *Vikās* society with a share capital of three lakhs of rupees, two housing societies, a dairy society, and a *majur* society.

Objects.
Dattātraya Temple.

Aṅkalkhop has shrines dedicated, one each, to Dattātraya and Mhasobā, in whose honour large fairs are held. The Dattātraya temple, built on an elevated ground, amidst a grove of trees, chiefly *neem,* consists of a small cut-stone shrine facing east. It contains the foot-prints of Dattātraya and is said to have been first built by the Deśpāṇḍes of Aṅkalkhop and later about 1860 rebuilt by one Kṛṣṇarāv Trimbak Bāpaṭ then māmlatdār of Vāḷvā. A flight of steps believed to have been built from the alms obtained by the devotees, leads up to the entrance gate. The fairs are held on the full moon of *Mārgaśirṣa* or November-December, the dark fifth of *Māgha* or January-February and the dark twelfth of *Āśvina* or September-October. On all the three occasions the mask (मुखवटा) of the deity is carried in a palanquin with the honours of the umbrella, peacock fans, maces and fly-whisks. The second fair held in January-February is the principal fair and the attendance ranges from three to five thousand.

CHAPTER 19. Places. ANKALKHOP. Objects. *Mhasobā Temple.*

Mhasobā temple is a domed stone shrine, measuring 3.04 × 2.43 metres (ten feet long by eight feet broad) with a height including the dome of about 3.65 metres (12 ft.). According to *Kṛṣṇa Mahātmya*, the temple was originally that of Gaṇapati. Round the shrine there are stones representing the attendants of Gaṇapati and inside a stone for Mhasobā. In front of the temple are three gateways, erected some 375 years ago by a headman of Aṅkalkhop. A fair attended by over 3,000 persons, is held in April. In olden days thousands of goats were sacrificed but the practice seems to have fallen into disuse. A flight of 30 steps (30′ × 1′ × 1′) with four landings all built by devotees leads down to the river bed.

ARAG.

Ārag, with 9,585 inhabitants in 1961, is a village in Miraj *tālukā* lying 19.31 km (12 miles) east of the *tālukā* headquarters. It is a railway station on the Miraj-Kurḍuvāḍī section of the South Central Railway. It has large orchards of betel-leaf, which is the chief produce, and is sent to places like Bombay, Barśī and Ratnāgirī. Before the merger of states it formed a part of the former Icalkaranjī State. Ārag has five primary schools, a high school, a library, an agricultural demonstration centre, a primary health centre, a post office and a family planning centre. There are temples dedicated to Yallammā *Devī* and Lakṣmī and a *dargāh*. On the occasion of the Yallammā *Devī* fair, which falls on *Pausa Śuddha pañcamī*, a large cattle market is held. The fair is attended by about 2,500 to 3,000 people. A fair in honour of Lakṣmī is also held in *Caitra* and is attended by nearly 4,000 persons. There is an old *gadhi* lying amidst ruins but for a solitary bastion.

ASHTA.

Aṣṭā, with in 1961, 14,390 inhabitants, is a municipal town in Vāḷvā *tālukā* lying 19.31 km (12 miles) south-east of Islāmpūr. It is situated on an elevated ground above the valley of the Kṛṣṇā which flows 6.43 km (four miles) to the west and has perhaps the most fertile soil in the Vāḷvā *tālukā*. The Peṭh-Sāṅglī major district road passing close by the town proceeds to Tāsgāṅv. In olden days Aṣṭā was surrounded by a wall with gates on four sides, which are now in a dilapidated state. In 1857 during the insurrection at Kolhāpūr a body of 75 horse was stationed at Aṣṭā, then the headquarters of the Vāḷvā sub-division.

The town has a thriving trade and the population is almost entirely agricultural, the gross revenue yield in 1961-62 being Rs. 75,289.83. Of late, however, an oil mill has been set up on co-operative basis. Also some 35 powerlooms are working in the town. Aṣṭā is perhaps one of the few towns in the district to adopt co-operative principles in the early eighties of the 19th century. There are now five co-operative societies and a branch of the urban bank.

Among the educational institutions may be noted six primary schools, two high schools and a training college conducted by the *Rayat Śikṣaṇ Saṁsthā*. There are a police station, with residential quarters for the police, a post and telegraph office, sub-registrar's office and a rest-house. The Koynā hydro-electric project supplies electricity to the town.

Drinking water is obtained from tube wells fitted with hand pumps. In times of scarcity, a well to the north-west of the town provided the people with ample water. It is dug in a solid rock and is about 4.64 m^2 (50 ft. square). In 1880 its supply was in danger of running short when some of the rock at its base was blasted as a last hope that a spring may be discovered. The boring rods were driven into the rock and a fault hit upon. The water shot up as from an artesian well and since then the well has never dried up. About a quarter of a mile to the south there is a large tank formed by a dam said to date from Mohammedan times. The hollow behind the dam is silted up and now hardly holds any water. Some large banyan and tamarind trees at its east and south-east edges make a good camping ground.

Municipality.

Constitution: Aṣṭā muicipality was established in 1853 and has an area of 84.17 km^2 (32.5 square miles) under its jurisdiction. It has an elected president.

Finance: In 1961-62 municipal income was Rs. 64,617.00. It comprised municipal rates and taxes Rs. 29,518.00; revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxation Rs. 6,301.00; grants and contributions Rs. 25,624.00 and miscellaneous Rs. 3,174. Expenditure during the same year amounted to Rs. 53,204.00. It comprised general administration and collection charges Rs. 7,434.00; public safety Rs. 4,591.00; public health and convenience Rs. 26,340.00 and miscellaneous Rs. 14,839.

Municipal Works: There is one municipal market-*cum*-office building built at a cost of Rs. 1,26,000. A loan of Rs. 1,00,000 was obtained from the State Government for this purpose. The market comprises eight vegetable and fruit stalls and a few general shops.

Health and Sanitation: A civil and a veterinary dispensaries are conducted by government. The town has also a hospital named as St. Luka's hospital, managed by a mission. The drainage system consists of only stone-lined gutters. A stream flowing in the vicinity carries the sullage.

Education: Primary education is compulsory and is looked after by the Zillā Parishad. The town municipality has to pay 5 per cent of the ratable value based on the annual letting value as its contribution. The amount so paid in 1961-62 stood at Rs. 5,566.27. There are two privately conducted libraries.

Cremation and Burial Places: Cremation and burial places are maintained and used by the communities concerned.

Objects. *Birobā Temple.*

To the east, is a temple of Birobā kept by Dhangars. The temple itself is very small and consists of an image chamber with a verandah opening east. But it has a paved court-yard with cloisters about 11.14 m^2 (120 ft. square), with walls 3.65 metres (12 ft.) high and the gateway surmounted by a *nagārkhānā*. The

CHAPTER 19. Places. ASHTA. Objects. *Birobā Temple.*

worship is entirely conducted by the Dhangars who meet there practically every evening. On every Sunday evening they advance to the temple in a large procession with drums and pipes to dance and sing before the deity. Most of the buildings are the work of Dhangars and point to a time when the caste had some wealth and influence. There is also a shrine of Rāma.

ATAPADI.

Āṭapāḍī, originally a village in Khānāpūr *tāluka* with an area of 149.08 km² (53.7 square miles) and a population of 10,968 as per the 1961 Census, is now the headquarters of the *mahāl* of the same name. It lies 53.10 km (33 miles) north-east of Viṭe on the Karhāḍ-Solāpūr road and is known for wool production, of which the local Saṇgars and Dhangars weave coarse blankets (*kāmbaḷs*). Quite a large section of the population is engaged in oil crushing industry and the preparation of twine from cordage plants (*Agave vivipara*) on co-operative basis. There are primary schools and a high school. The village has a primary health centre, a family planning centre, and a *vastigṛha*. There is a *Hemāḍpantī* temple dedicated to Kāḷeśvar. In honour of this deity a fair is held in the month of *Pauṣa*. Construction work on Āṭapāḍī *talāv* has been taken up and when complete would bring an area of 1,120.57 hectares (2,769 acres) under irrigation.

AUDUMBAR. Datta Temple

Audumbar in Tāsgāṁv *tāluka*, 8 km (five miles) east of Bhilavaḍī railway station, is known for the shrine of Dattātraya held in high reverence. It is said to have been built in honour of Narsiṁha Sarasvatī who was a great saint and who is supposed to be the incarnation of Dattātraya. His greatness has been extolled in *Guru Caritra* written by Sarasvatī Gaṅgādhar. Narsiṁha was born of a poor Brāhmaṇ couple, Mādhava and Ambā, in about 1304. After his thread ceremony he left on a holy pilgrimage and on its completion came to Auduṁbar on the banks of the Kṛṣṇā to engross himself secretly in religious mortification during the *Cāturmāsa*. At this time it so happened that a Brāhmaṇ's son who was dull-witted, overcome with shame at the remarks passed by the people in this regard, went to Bhuvaneśvarī temple on the opposite bank of the Kṛṣṇā and prayed for three days and nights without taking any food. But the goddess remained unmoved by his severe penance upon which he cut off his tongue and laid it at Her feet. Taking pity the goddess advised him to go to Auduṁbar and pray Narsiṁha. The boy taking the command went to Narsiṁha and falling at his feet received the blessings of the sage. The identity of the saint having been known, thousands of people began to flock to the place for *darśan*. At the end of *Cāturmāsa*, when the sage prepared to leave, the people requested him to stay. He only left his *pādukās* under an *uṁbar* tree over which a small shrine was erected by a devotee from Pooṇā, who also built a *dharmaśāḷā*. The outer *maṇḍap* is of very recent construction. The shrine is situated at a lovely spot on the banks of the Kṛṣṇā and in turn commands a splendid view of the river. There is some striking scenery around. It is associated with the visits of Eknāth *Mahārāj* and Janārdan *Svāmī*, the noted saints of Mahārāṣṭra and that of Brahmānand

AUDUMBAR.
Datta Temple.

Svāmī who came from the Girnār mountain, built a *math* in 1826 and finally took his *samādhī*. A splendid *ghāṭ* has been constructed on the river by the temple-side. It was built by the disciples of Sahajānand *Mahārāj*, a follower of Brahmānand *Svāmī* at the orders of their *guru*.

So potent are supposed to be the divine powers of the deity that if persons possessed by spirits are kept in the premises for a few days they are completely cured. On the opposite bank is the shrine of Bhuvaneśvarī. The idol is of black flint-stone and is exquisitely sculptured. This place is overgrown with *audumbar* trees and hence the name.

BAGANI.

Bāgaṇī (pop. 6,623) lying 24.14 km (15 miles) south-east of Islāmpūr, is a village in Vāḷvā *tālukā* once alienated to the junior branch of the Mantri family. The village had lofty walls, which were as high as 9.14 metres (30 ft.) at some places, a 12.19 metres (40 ft.) broad moat usually filled with water and an inner citadel or fort entered by a lofty gate. Today the walls lie amidst ruins and the moat almost in an unworkable condition with hardly any water. Of the citadel only a few fragments remain. It was a post or *thāṇā* of the Bijāpūr kings (1490-1686). Bāgaṇī has a primary school, a high school, a *bālvāḍī*, a branch post office and a gymnasium. Betel-nut crackers manufactured here are well-known all over the district and even outside. About 0.85 km (half a mile) to the east there is a mosque 2.78 m^2 (30 ft. square) and 4.57 metres (fifteen ft.) high with a small dome crowning the centre. The niches are saracenic, handsomely moulded and decorated with floral patterns. To the east of this mosque is a courtyard about 50.16 m^2 (sixty yards square) containing a mausoleum of the usual type in honour of Kadir Sāheb, a *pīr*, who received this honour for, among other things, miraculously curing a tumour with which Muhammad Śāh, seventh king of Bijāpūr (1626-1656) was afflicted. The tomb inside is covered with a beautiful brocade curtain presented by the Mantris of Bāgaṇī.

BAHADDURVADI.

Bahāddurvāḍī. (pop. 3,136) lying 19.31 km (12 miles) south-west of Peṭh and 16.09 km (10 miles) south of Islāmpūr, is a village in Vāḷvā *tālukā*, easily reached by turning east from the Pooṇā-Bangalore road at the village of Tānduḷvāḍī which is 16.09 km (10 miles) south of Islāmpūr. It is largely an agricultural village and the introduction of electricity has greatly facilitated well irrigation. There are a post office and a high school besides a primary school.

Objects.
Fort.

It was remarkable for a fort with three enclosures and belonged to the *Rājā* of Sāṅglī by whom it was granted to Rāmcandrarāv Mahipatrāv Ghorpaḍe, a junior branch of the Mudhoḷ family. The following is an extract from the Old Gazetteer giving the description of the fort. "The first or outer enclosure is round, about 137.16 metres (150 yds.) in diameter and consists of an earthen embankment, about 9.14 metres (30 ft.) high. Inside is another round space about 91.44 metres (100 yds.) in diameter enclosed by a stone and mud wall about 1.21 metres (4 ft.) thick

CHAPTER 19. Places. BAHADDURVADI. Objects. *Fort.*

and 6.09 metres (20 ft.) high, with a shallow ditch about 1.82 metres (6 ft.) wide. It has nine bastions of which the central bastion is over a fortified gateway of some strength. All the bastions are loopholed for musketry. The third and the inner most enclosure is a square about 54.86 metres (60 yds.) in diameter surrounded by a moat 6.09 metres (20 ft.) wide and 9.14 metres (30 ft.) deep. It is enclosed by walls of stone and mud about 3.96 metres (13 ft.) thick and surmounted by eight bastions, one at each corner and one at the centre of each side. The bastions facing east are particularly strong and the wall is of rough masonry mortar. The centre bastion on the east is inhabited and the walls contain store-chambers. The walls and bastions are surrounded by a parapet and are also loopholed for musketry. Their ramparts formerly held guns and mortars, the few remaining of which were taken possession of by government when the district was disarmed in 1857-58. The inmost enclosure has a mansion forming the residence of the *Ināmdār*, a rock-cut well with steps about 15.24 metres (50 ft.) deep and 7.62 metres (25 ft.) wide, and always holding 6.09 metres (20 ft.) of water. The situation of this fort is decidedly striking, crowning as it does the knoll on which the village is built with the temple-crowned hill of Mallikārjun to the north and the luxuriant Vārṇā valley on the east, south and west and Panhāḷā and Pāvangaḍ to the south-west." The fort is now in a crumbled state except for the gateways and is of no consequence any longer. Even the gateways are tottering. The ditches and moats have completely dried up and the walls and the bastions surmounting them are almost beyond repairs.

No remarkable engagement seems to have taken place at the fort and since the death of Mahipatrāv who served the last of the *Peśvās* in a high office under Hari Pant Phadke, the general in charge of the *Jaripatka*, the family has not been distinguished. The fort is said to have been built by Mādhavrāv, the fourth *Peśvā* (1761-1772) as a frontier protection against the attacks of Kolhāpūr.

Mahādev Temple.

The vilage has a noteworthy shrine dedicated to Mahādev. It consists of an idol chamber and a *maṇḍap*, the whole being 15.24 × 6.09 metres (50 ft. by 20). It is entered by a low, irregular shaped arch, and the walls about 3.65 metres (12 ft.) high are of well-dressed black stone. The brick spire is not unhandsome. The walls have a facade of images carved in relief and painted in *cunam* with some grotesque figures of animals and human beings on the roof of the *maṇḍap*.

BAHE.

Bahe, (pop. 3 546) in Vaḷvā *tālukā* lying 8.04 km (5 miles) north of Islāmpūr, is situated on the right bank of the Kṛṣṇā. Crops like sugarcane, jowar and groundnut are grown in abundance. A bridge laid across the river at Bahe has greatly facilitated traffic between Bahe and Narsingpūr, which was hitherto disrupted during high floods. Narsingpūr, on the left bank of the Kṛṣṇā, is situated about 3.21 km (2 miles) upstream. There is a primary school and a post office.

BAHE.

Bahe was originally granted to Yeśvantrāv Thorāt who flourished in the reign of Rājārām (1689—1700) and his son Śivājī. Yeśvantrāv was killed in the battle of Panhāḷā (May 18, 1701) and as his adopted son was not present his villages were given to his nephew Sidojī. The village contains to date the mansion of Yeśvantrāv which was fortified with mud and stone walls and bastioned at the corners. The fortifications along with the bastions have given way. A part of the mansion has also collapsed, the remaining being repaired and utilised by the descendants of Sidojī. The first storey of the building gives a clear view of the river flowing below and the island with the temples.

Objects. *Rāmliṅga Temple.*

Bahe has temples dedicated to Rāmliṅga, Māruti, Gaṇapati and Kṛṣṇā. Of these the first two are remarkable and are situated on a small islandlike formation in the Kṛṣṇā bed. A good many trees on the island shade the temples. The chief temple of Rāmliṅga, after which the island is also called, was built by one Antobā Nāik Bhiḍe about two and a quarter centuries ago. It is built of mortared brick on 0.609 metres (two feet) high plinth. The idol chamber is about 0.92 m^2 (10 ft. square). The outer chamber has a vaulted roof with four pillars. The side aisles are about 2.43 metres (8 ft.) high and the centre about 3.96 metres (13 ft.). The arches are pointed and about 1.82 metres (6 ft.) wide. The whole chamber is about 1.85 m^2 (20 ft. square) and is capped by a pinnacle about 9.14 metres (30 ft.) high also of mortared brick. The legend about the temple is that during a pilgrimage Rāma halted here, worshipped a *liṅg* and hence the temple as well as the island came to be known as Rāmliṅga. Today the shrine is in very bad repairs. Two fairs are held at the temple, one on the last day of *Pauṣa* and the other on the bright ninth of *Caitra* in honour of Rāma's birthday.

Hanumān Temple.

The temple of Māruti with a 2.13 metres (7 ft.) image of Hanumān is a poor double building 9.14 x 4.57 metres (30 ft. by 15 ft.) built by one Dhangar Setu Harpu Khāṭ. The whole was surrounded by a walled court; but the court has since crumbled down due to floods. In high floods the river flows right up to the dome of the temple. Setu Dhangar presented the Rāmlinga temple with a curious brass cobra which can still be seen.

BEDAG.

Beḍag (pop. 8,095) is a village in Miraj *tāluka* lying 11.26 km (7 miles) east of the *tālukā* headquarters. It is also a railway station and is chiefly known for its betel-leaf orchards which number over 1,000. These leaves are marketed to Bombay, Pooṇā, etc. The village was held by the Ghorpaḍes in *ināṁ* of whom Narsiṁhrāv Ghorpaḍe pulled down the old and decrepit *vāḍā* and built a new one in its place. It has now been purchased by the village pancāyat and serves to house besides its office, the high school, agriculturists co-operative society, and the village post office. Opposite to this is the public library established by Narsiṁhrāv himself.

Objects. *Sañjirbā Temple.*

Beḍag has a number of shrines dedicated to different deities of which those of Sañjirbā and Margubāī and a *maṭh* known as Bāvācā *maṭh* claim importance. It is told that it was the custom

CHAPTER 19.

Places.

BEDAG.

Objects.

Sañjirbā Temple.

among the villagers of Ārag to take in procession in a palanquin a bowl known as *Sanjācī vāṭī* which was considered to be the symbol of dignity and prestige of Ārag and hence the villagers did not even hesitate to sacrifice their lives to preserve it. On one such occasion a Koṣṭī from Bedag after quarrelling with his family went to attend the procession and in a fit of rage laid hands upon the *vāṭi* and ran in the direction of Bedag, the processionists yelling after him. On seeing the blood-thirsty mob the gate-keepers of Bedag bolted the gates but the Koṣṭī succeeded in flinging the *vāṭī* inside from over the rampart. Realising the whole episode the gate was slightly opened upon which the Kotṣī put his head inside and asked them to sever it. This done the Ārag villagers only got the trunk. Yet another version states that the head was separated by the Ārag villagers themselves and while dragging the trunk behind them they heard it saying, when they had hardly covered 1.61 km (a mile), that wherever the trunk fell would be considered to be the boundary of Bedag. On the spot where the trunk was left a stone block emerged which is still pointed out. The head was also buried but surprisingly enough it began to grow. Panic-stricken, the villagers summoned his mother and asked her to advise it not to grow and that if it continued to grow it would be considered to be a ghost. Upon this the head disappeared and in its place another block of stone emerged over which a shrine was built. It is known as Sañjirbā temple and on the day of the fair which falls on *Amāvāsyā* the facial plaque of *Sañjirbā* and *Sañjācī vaṭī* are put in a palanquin and taken in procession. This day is considered to be a holy day and is enthusiastically celebrated. The right of performing *pūjā* goes to a Koṣṭī.

Margubāī Temple.

Margubāī temple is very old and has a spacious *maṇḍapa* with a *dipmāl* outside. Inside the *gābhārā* is placed a stone image of the deity. In *Caitra*, a fair attended by over 5,000 persons is held, its prominent features being cart-races and wrestling bouts. It lasts for five days. A large cattle market is also held.

Bāvācā Maṭh.

Bāvācā maṭh, just on the outskirts of the village, is built after one Kṛṣṇājī Bāvā who took *samādhi* there. It is a very old and crumbling edifice, wild growth having practically encompassed it. Within the compound of the *maṭh* is the above referred Margubāī shrine and also that of Ambābāī. People visit it generally at the time of the fair. In the same compound are two interconnected wells said to have been built by Kṛṣṇājī Bāvā. Formerly the waters of these wells were utilised for drinking.

BHILAVADI.

Bhilavaḍi (pop. 12,184), a railway station on the Pooṇā-Miraj route of the South Central Railway, is a village in Tāsgāṅv *tālukā* lying 15.28 km (nine and a half miles) south-west of the *tālukā* headquarters. It has sprung up on the left bank of the Kṛṣṇā and the road from Tāsgāṅv to Aṣṭā passes through it and is connected by a bridge with Aṅkalkhop on the opposite bank. A fine *ghāṭ*, known as *satīca ghāṭ*, in memory of Smt. Ramābāī Paṭvardhan of Tāsgāṅvkar Paṭvardhan family, who became *satī*,

BHILAVADI.

has been constructed on the river bank. The descent is not more than 1.52 metres (five feet), but the steps are so built that a coin placed on any of the steps can be seen from any position of equal height from the rest of the flight. The river bank is soft and muddy and the foundation of the *ghāṭ* is said to be principally constructed of cattle horns. Bhilavaḍī has nine primary schools, a middle school, a high school, a library, a sub-centre of the veterinary dispensary and a police out-post. The soil found here is some of the finest of the Kṛṣṇā valley yielding rich crops.

BHUPALGAD FORT.

Bhupālgaḍ hill-fort lies within the village limits of Bāṇūr at the extreme south-east of the Khānāpūr *tālukā*. The easiest approach to it is from Khānāpūr 17.70 km (eleven miles) by the Karhāḍ-Bijāpūr road to *Palśi,* whence a rough path passable for ponies leads through a very stony country 6.43 km (four miles) due east to Bāṇūr. A small neck of land divides the spur on which the fort and the village are situated from the main Khānāpūr plateau. The fort is formed by broken walls skirting the edges of an irregular rhomboid raised about 18.28 metres (60 ft.) above the rest of the plateau. A hill in the centre might serve as the *bāle killā* or citadel, but it is unfortified and contains a temple of Mahādev. The village of Bāṇūr is situated at the south of the fort just inside the walls. The internal area of the fort is between 80.93 and 121.40 hectares (two and three hundred acres). On the south-east, east and north, it is fairly unapproachable up the precipitous descent of about 213.36 metres (700 ft.) on into the Māṇ valley below. On the west and south there is nothing but the small rise of 18.28 to 30.48 metres (60 to 100 ft.) abovementioned, but to reach this the narrow neck noticed above has to be crossed. The fort, however, is commanded from hills about 0.85 km. (half a mile) to the west. A broad track was made in ancient times from the village of Jaraṇḍī 8 km. (five miles) south-east by which stores used to be sent. There is a small tank inside the fort, and close on the south a fine large one with a well adjoining and full of water throughout the year. According to a local legend, the fort was built by a king named Bhūpāl. Bhūpālgaḍ formed the eastern out-post of Śivājī's territories. Diler Khān, the Moghal general, with the help of Saṁbhājī, who was then in rebellion against his father[1], besieged the fort with the intention of taking it by storm. On a projection in the vicinity of the fort were mounted the cannons and in the morning of April 2, 1679 at 9 a.m. Bhupālgaḍ came under heavy fire of the Moghals. Firangojī Narsāḷā, the gallant *killedār*, replied effectively. Thousands of persons were killed on either side[2]. Firangojī with his handful of soldiers was giving a determined fight. Upon him was the additional responsibility of protecting hunderceds of families from the surrounding region which had taken shelter in the fort, to save themselves from the Moghals. Then Saṁbhājī came in the forefront of the battle and sent a message to Firangojī either to surrender the fort or

[1] Sardesai : *New History of the Marathas*, Vol. I, p. 251.

[2] *Shivacharitra Vruttasangraha,* Vol. II., pp. 104-110.

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face severe consequences[1]. Firangojī had held out the fort for fifteen days now and when he saw his master standing in the forefront he was helpless. He decided to give up the fort and the same night along with Viṭṭhalpant Bhālerāv, who was the *Sabnis*, went to Chatrapati Śivājī[2]. On 17th April the gates were opened and Diler and Saṁbhājī entered it triumphantly. Seven hundred Marāṭhās, who had bravely defended the fort along with others and had surrendered it only at the orders of Saṁbhājī, were punished brutally when one hand of each of them was cut off[3]. The rest were made prisoners and turned into slaves. Firangojī and *Sabnis* on relating the whole episode were reprimanded by Śivāji for their actions and urgent messages were despatched to other *killedārs* not to surrender the forts[4]. Diler Khān disarmed the fort by destroying its fortifications. Thus the fort which was made a tower of strength at great cost to preserve and protect the *Svarāj* was dismantled under the very eyes of Sambhāji[5].

BHOSE.

Cave Temple

Bhose, (pop. 4,288) is a village in Miraj *tālukā* about 14.48 km (nine miles) south-east of Tāsgāṅv, and remarkable for a curious cave temple of Daṇḍobā Mahādev. The temple is situated in the hills to the south-east of the village about 17.67 metres (fifty-eight feet) from the summit of a point rising about 365.76 metres (1200 feet) above the level of the spur. The spur on which the hill stands branches due south from the Khanapūr plateau, and the cave temple on it faces east. The ascent from Bhose is easy by "the elephant path", a track cleared by the Paṭvardhans for their elephants. There is now a road from Kharśing village. A flat platform leads, to the temple doorway which is cut rectangularly out of the rock 1.21 metres (four feet) high by 0.914 metres (three feet) broad. There is no door or any frame-work for one. Immediately inside is a hole made in the rock above, which lets light in the whole cave except the image-chamber which is artificially walled off from the rest. The whole excavation is 17.67 metres (58 ft.) long east to west and 10.97 metres (36 ft.) broad north to south and was originally apparently nothing but an oblong cave. A great deal of building has since been done by modern hands. An inscription noticed below shows that a king named Śringaṇ was intimately connected with it. His place of residence is called Kausalyāpūr. A legendary account gives Kauṇḍanyapūr as the place of residence of a *Rājā* known as Hiṅgaṇdev, a name a trace of which also remains in the Hiṅgaṇkhaḍi at Mhasurṇe and perhaps in the name Śingṇapūr, where he is said to have performed much devotion. The date in the inscription is said to read *Śaka* 611 (A. D. 689), but this seems wrong and the king is probably the Devagiri Yadav king Siṅghaṇ who flourished in the thirteenth century[6]. It seems possible that he built this temple, more

[1] *Chitnis Bakhar.*

[2] *Shivacharitra Vrittasangraha*, Vol II., pp. 104-110

[3] *Shivacharitra Pradip*, p. 29

[4] *Chitnis Bakhar*

[5] *Shivaji and His Times*, p. 306.

[6] Fleet's *Kanarese Dynasties*, pp. 72-74.

especially as the temples of Kuṇḍal and Malkeśvar are referred by Dr. Burgess to a period between the twelfth and fourteenth centuries. The chamber roof is quite flat and there are no benches at the sides. Inside the door a space 8.53 metres (28 ft.) wide and 9.14 metres (30 ft.) long has been walled up, leaving recesses between the wall and sides of the cave. At right angles to this is a wall right across the cave, with a door about 1.52 x 1.21 metres (five feet by four) which leads to a hall or *maṇḍap*. Immediately in front of this door two stone figures of a man and woman called *Bāhule* with Marāṭhī inscriptions below them are, it is believed, door-keepers or satellites of the gods. One contains the date *Śaka* 1695 (A.D. 1773). The rest is not legible. The other contains the names Sināpā and Balāpā Tāṭavṭe *bin* (son of Jayapa Tāṭavṭe, residence Sanik Savemāne Rājojī. These letters are modern. Inside the *maṇḍap* extends the whole width of the cave. Above the centre of the *maṇḍap* is a masonry structure (4.26 x 3.04 metres) forming the image-chamber. A door (1.52 x 1.21 metres) leads into the chamber which contains a stone *liṅg* on a pedestal about 1.21 metres (four feet) high railed off by a cross bar to prevent worshippers coming too close and overcrowding. A 1.52 metres (five feet) wide passage is left round the chamber. This is ordinarily used for the holy circuit or *pradakṣiṇa* which is necessary to qualify a worshipper to enter into the image-chamber. The rest of the *maṇḍap* is taken up with masonry arches made to give a nave and side aisles. The pillars are about 0.304 metres (a foot) in diameter with plain and square shafts and round arches. In front of the door of the image-chamber is a small stone *nandi*, and to its right is an eight handed image of Bhavānī about 0.914 metres (three feet) high and 0.609 metres (two feet) in diameter, and close by it is a slab in the middle west pillar which is carved in front with Kanarese inscription, mentioned above. Next the north-west pillar is another stone image of Vīrbhadra, a little smaller in size than the *Devī*. Upon the summit of the hill and supposed to be directly over the *liṅg* is a spire 2.78 m². (30 sq. ft.) at the base and of the same height, formed of four concentric square courses each about 0.914 metres (three feet) less in diameter than the other and surmounted by an urn-shaped pinnacle. The lower courses are of stone and the upper ones and the pinnacle are of brick. The stone courses are of considerable age but who built them is not known. The brick courses were added by Cintāmaṇrāv Āppā Paṭvardhan at the beginning of the 19th century. The god is called Daṇḍobā after the priest mentioned in the inscription. About 200 to 300 people gather on each Monday of *Śrāvaṇa* or July-August to worship the deity. The attendance on the last Monday, goes well over 3,000. The worshippers are chiefly Lingāyat Vāṇīs and Jains.

The hillock on which the temple is situated is known as *Daṇḍobācā Ḍoṅgar* after the name of that deity and is well wooded. Plans are afoot to convert it into a health resort.

The village is largely agricultural, the principal crops taken being jowar, groundnut, sugarcane, betel-leaves and tobacco.

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On a smaller scale bananas are also grown. Over 364 hectares (900 acres) of land is under well irrigation. Besides a multi-purpose co-operative society, Bhose has a service co-operative, a diary society, a branch post office, a dispensary, two primary schools one each for boys and girls and a high school. There are also a *Mahilā Maṇḍaḷ*, *Taruṇ Maṇḍaḷ*, *Nāṭya Maṇḍaḷ*, and a Farmer's Club.

BORGAON.

Borgāṅv, (pop. 6,485) in Vāḷvā *tālukā* is a large and well-to-do agricultural village lying 8.84 km (five and a half miles) north-east of Islāmpūr and 8 km. (five miles) north-west of Vāḷvā. At one time it was held by Khaṇḍo Ballāḷ Citṇīs. It is situated on the right bank of the river Kṛṣṇā, at a sudden bend which it takes northwards, and hence the land in the neighbourhood is some of the finest black soil of the Kṛṣṇā valley. Borgāṅv has four hamlets *viz.*, Pharnevāḍī, Banevāḍī, Gauṇḍavāḍī and Sāthpevāḍī. The village has primary schools, a branch post office, a civil dispensary, a maternity home and a *bālvāḍī*. Adjoining the Kṛṣṇā on the north there is a temple of Māruti. It is an interesting building in a courtyard about 9.29 m^2 (100 ft. square) with round arched cloisters of brick covered with mortar. However, the western part of the court is past repairs.

BUDHGAON.

Budhgāṅv (pop. 6,789) is a village in Miraj *tālukā* lying 8 km (five miles) north of Miraj and 2.41 km (one and a half miles) south of Madhavnagar, the nearest railway station. The Sānglī-Tasgāṅv road passes through the village. It was formerly the capital of Budhgāṅv State. The village has a large population of weavers and nearly 200 powerlooms and 250 handlooms are worked here, there being a weavers' co-operative society and two other co-operatives. Budhgāṅv has two primary schools, a high school, a training college, two libraries, a police station under a sub-inspector, a sub-post and telegraph office, civil and veterinary dispensaries and a rest-house. A State palace is still in a good condition and is used by the descendants of the ex-royal family. Weekly bazar is held on Sundays. There are eleven temples and two mosques, none of which are of much consequence.

CHIKURDE.

Cikurḍe, (pop. 4,790) a village in Vāḷvā *tālukā* lies in the Varṇa valley nearly 19.31 km (12 miles) south-west of Islāmpūr and 9.65 km (6 miles) west of the Pooṇā-Bangalore national highway. The land being fertile yields rich crops of sugarcane, and pepper to a certain extent and is one of the most thriving villages of Vāḷvā *tālukā*. Cikurḍe has two primary schools, a high school, a branch post office and a handloom weavers' co-operative, there being a small trade in handloom cloth. The Deśmukhs of this place were an affluent family of local repute and were holding office since the days of the Bijāpūr kings. They had an excellent mansion and in the 19th century, endowed and enlarged a handsome temple of Mahādev, which lies about 1.61 km (a mile) north-west of the village at the edge of a bare plain or *māḷrān*. The temple which is 15.24 × 9.14

CHIKURDE.

metres (50′ × 30′) has an image chamber, a *maṇḍap* and a tower built in bricks. In front, there is a paved courtyard surrounded by a stone wall and outside a large masonry tank about 7.43 m^2 (80 ft. square).

CHINCHANI.

Ciñcaṇī (pop. 5,181) is a large village in Tāsgāṅv *tālukā* lying 6.43 km (four miles) east of the *tālukā* headquarters. It previously belonged to the Jamkhiṇḍī State and contains the ruined *vāḍā* or mansion of the Paṭvardhans with some wells inside and the backside rampart wall still in tact. The area occupied by the whole of this is nearly 1.01 hectares (2½ acres) and has now been purchased for Rs. 7,000 to house a health centre and provide quarters for the medical staff. The Ciñcaṇī *bandhārā* irrigating over 80.93 hectares (200 acres) of land was built at an approximate cost of Rs. 35,413 during the Second Five-Year Plan. Turmeric, sugarcane, jowar and groundnut are among the chief crops. There are three primary schools, of which one is for girls, a high school, a dispensary and a co-operative society. The village has also two temples and a mosque. Drinking water is obtained from the wells.

DAFALAPUR.

Ḍafaḷāpūr, the headquarters of the erstwhile State of Ḍafaḷāpūr, is a village in Jath *tālukā* lying 17.70 km (eleven miles) west of the *tālukā* headquarters. It was managed by a lady, the Bāīsāheb Lakṣmībāī Ḍafaḷī, who exercised the power of a magistrate of the first class and in civil matters of a first class subordinate judge. In 1917 Ḍafaḷāpūr was merged in the *ex*-State of Jath and along with Jath merged in the Indian Union soon after independence. Dafaḷāpūr is sizable village with in 1961 a population of 3,427. There are a high school, two primary schools, two post offices, a police out-post and two dispensaries. Betel-leaf is the chief produce. Thursday is the weekly bazar day. There are temples dedicated to Rāma, Māruti, Viṭhobā, Yallamā and Siddheśvar.

DEVRASHTRE. Temples and Cells.

Devrāṣṭre in Khānāpūr, a village of 3,181 inhabitants, about 19.31 km (twelve miles) south-west of Viṭe, has a curious cluster of temples and ancient monkish cells. These lie about a couple of kilometreṣ north-west of the village and a good roadway made and planted with trees by the devotees of the place leads to the bare round-topped hills near which the village lies. There is now a regular bus service to the village. The temples lie in a hollow about half-way down a small, gently sloping but rocky pass through an opening in the hills which forms the communication between the Khānāpūr and Vāḷvā *tālukās*. They are perhaps more easily accessible from Tākārī village in the Vāḷvā *tālukā* which has an irrigation bungalow good to serve as a starting point. A walk north-east of about 1.60 km (one mile) along a path running between the Sātārā-Tāsgāṅv road and the range of hills which runs parallel to it leads to a ravine opening to the north up which the path turns. The rocks on each side are bare and rugged and the ground much broken by deep stream beds. A little scrub grows here and there. A mile

of this and the ravine closes in. The path begins to ascend slightly, and after a rise of about 15.24 metres (50 ft.) reaches the hollow where are the temples. The hollow is about 50.16 m^2 (60 sq. yds.) and quite shut in by low rocky hills and broken ground, but contains no less than forty-three temples large and small nearly all of the same pattern, a square shrine with a vestibule and a spire of brick, all in honour of Mahādev and containing no image but the *liṅg*. The chief temple is in the centre, and, though modernised by restoration, is apparently older than the rest. It is dedicated to Samudreśvar or Sāgareśvar Mahādev or Mahādev of the Sea and the antiquity and sanctity of the place is derived from this temple and its accompanying cells. Entering from the south in a row on the left or west are three temples and on the right or east are the cells, seven in a row running from west to east and then, at right angles, seven more running from south to north. These buildings are undoubtedly old and are said to have been inhabited by seers or *ṛṣis*. As there is no inscription it is difficult to fix the exact date. But legends connect the place with a *Rājā* of Kuṇḍal, where are a large number of Brahmanical caves, and these cells, therefore, are probably of about the same age. They look as if they were an unfinished part of a cloistered quadrangle for a temple. The position of the temple of Samudreśvar to the north of the end of the cells would not suit with this theory, but there is a small shrine made into a modern temple in a place almost corresponding to the centre of the quadrangle. The cells are each 1.52 × 1.21 metres (6′ × 4′) and about 1 72 metres (5′—8″) high. They have pillars with shafts at each corner and square dome-like tops closed in with rough flat slabs. The cells all open inward and are separated by stone partitions 0.304 metres (a foot) thick, which give some support to the quadrangle theory. They are closed at the back by a solid stone wall about 0.60 metres (two feet) thick and about 2.13 metres (seven feet) high including a slightly raised coping. This gives a fall for the centre roof which slopes inwards down to the broad eaves in the old *Hemāḍpantī* style. These eaves are 0.48 metres (one foot seven inches) broad, curved, and turned up at the front margin. They are kept in their places by the heavy roof slabs which overlap them some 0.15 metres (six inches). The rest of the roof is made in the same fashion, the upper slabs overlapping the lower. The coping stones at the top are about 1.52 metres (five feet) long and 0.55 metres (one foot ten inches) wide with wedge-shaped incisions apparently for the insertion of dovetailing blocks to hold them together. Each roof slab, where it overlaps the one below, and the eaves, is faced with mouldings and crochets. No mortar is used throughout the structure, which is of large blocks of trap finely cut. Old slabs mouldings and shafts of various fashions are scattered about different parts of the place and are worked here and there into the new temple buildings.

Immediately in front of the seven cells running north are five temples in a row opening west. In a line with these cells are

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three more temples or rather modern chambers opening west and turning west of them are four more opening south. Facing the east row of cells are four temples in a row opening east, a *dharmaśālā* or rest-house and then another temple. In the centre is a small temple above alluded to, north of it another. and north of this last the temple of Samudreśvar. It has a *maṇḍap* with the old style of pillars and a brick spire but no signs of antiquity. 18.28 metres (20 yds.) north of it are three masonry tanks about 3.04 x 1.82 metres (ten feet long and six feet broad), one below the other for different castes, always full of beautiful clear water with about nine small temples surrounding them. East of these is the road leading up to Devrāṣtre and beyond the road the sacred tank generally dry but when filled with water used for ablution. Its waters are supposed to have miraculous powers and to have originally cured the *Rājā* of Kuṇḍal who built the cells The legend is that a sage named Sūta told the great sage Vyas that he had been to all sacred places and yet had not been satisfied. Vyās then informed all the *ṛṣis* that there was a sacred spot named Samudreśvar which would become known in the days of *Rajā* Satyeśvar. *Rajā* Satyeśvar once went to hunt in the Ambikā country. He shot an arrow at his quarry but missed and in following it arrived at the forest of Nibiḍ. He was in great difficulty for water and came to where the sage Sumitra was sitting. He asked him for water. But the sage was rapt in divine contemplation and would not answer him. The *Rājā* then flew in a rage and threw some lice, which were on the ground, at the sage. At that moment the sage awoke from his trance, saw Satyeśvar and visited him with the curse that vermin would come out all over his body. The *Rājā* begged for mercy, on which the sage said the plague should occur only at night and disappear in the day, and after twelve years the sanctuary of Samudreśvar would be discovered, and his sins be cleansed there by the devoted worship of his wife. The *Rājā* went home and his wife passed the appointed time praying for him and cleansing him day by day of the vermin that appeared on him at night. He then went to hunt in the same part of the country and was again in difficulties for water, when he saw a small rill trickling from a rock in the Sahyādris. It's water he took in his hand, washed with it his eyes and when he got home his wife noticed at night that his hands, eyes and mouth were free from the vermin plague. The wife then suggested that he should go to the spring wherewith he had washed. He made a large tank where the rill had appeared, and washed his whole body, when the vermin entirely disappeared. On inquiring for the origin of this sacred water he was told by Kārtik Svāmī that it came from the head of Śaṅkar. The reason of its appearance and the name Samudreśvar are thus explained: Śaṅkar killed a gigantic sea demon called Jālandara. The sea or *samudra*, delighted at this, worshipped Śaṅkar and asked Him to manifest Himself at some spot where *samudra* would put up the *liṅg* in his honour. Śaṅkar consented and out of his head sprang a branch of the Gaṅgā which was the rill Satyeśvar found

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and hence the name Samudreśvar. Śaṅkar promised to favour this spot as he did Banāras itself. The legends contain no account of how the cells were built. The other shrines here were built in honour of various manifestations of Śaṅkar and kindred deities. A prince named Bil *Rājā* erected one and Somanāth of Soraṭh, a name which seems to have some reference to the celebrated Kāṭhiāvāḍ temple destroyed by Muhammad of Gazni, is another. Another prince mentioned is Girī *Rājā*, but there seem to be no historical personages corresponding to these names. The cells are said to have been built by Hiṅgaṇdev, the king who is said to have built the well at Mhasurṇe or Hiṅgaṇ Khāḍī in Khaṭāv; while the village of Hiṅgangaḍ close by in the Khānāpūr *tālukā* is perhaps named after him. His place of residence is said to have been Kauṇḍanyapūr which is said to be the same as Kuṇḍal, the Pant Pratinidhi's village about 6.43 km (four miles) to the south-east.

Devrāṣṭre has two primary schools, a high school run by the Yaśvant Education Society, a post office, a multi-purpose co-operative society and a wool-weavers' co-operative which is engaged in the manufacture of blankets from the indigenous wool. The village has a *Mahilā Maṇḍaḷ*, and a *Taruṇ Maṇḍaḷ* which conducts a well equipped gymnasium. Devrastre is the birth place of late Ramābāi Rānaḍe, wife of Govind Mahādev Rānaḍe and Shri Y. B. Chavān, the present Home Minister of India.

DHALGAON.

Ḍhālgāṅv (pop. 3,112), formerly a village in Miraj *talukā*, has now been included in the newly formed Kavaṭhe Mahāṅkāḷ *mahāl*. It is a railway station on the Miraj-Kurḍuvāḍī route and is known as a centre of trade in sheep and poultry in the rural areas. There is a high school, a sub-centre of the veterinary dispensary, an agricultural demonstration centre, and an industrial co-operative for the manufacture of coarse blankets, receiving aid from the Khadi and Village Industries Commission. Ḍhālgāṅv has also a Sarvodaya Centre which not only works for the all round uplift of the backward classes in Ḍhālgāṅv but also of people of 21 other villages which come within its sphere. It was established in May 1958 and has brought about 809.33 hectares (2,000 acres) of land under scientific cultivation. The centre affords every possible help to the agriculturists in respect of loans, manures and insecticides. It has to a great extent encouraged poultry farming and sheep rearing by advancing loans to those who are engaged in this profession. It has established co-operatives in practically all the villages coming within its fold. For water-supply old wells were repaired and new ones sunk. It also repaired quite a few old buildings to conduct primary schools and for office premises for village pancāyats. At Ḍhālgāṅv it runs a *bālvāḍi*, two *vasatigṛhas* and ten adult literacy classes. It has also arranged for first-aid equipment.

DIGHANCHI.

Dighañcī, till recently a village in Khānāpur *tālukā*, is now included in the Āṭapāḍi *mahāl* with the formation of that *mahāl* in August, 1964. It covers an area of 54.90 km² (21.2 square miles) and has a population of 4,456 as per the 1961 Census. Besides

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agriculture, wool weaving and twine manufacture from cordage plants (*Agave vivipara*) gives employment to a large number of people. The coarse woollen blankets woven by the Dhangars are of a good texture and find a ready market. There are co-operative societies of wool weavers as well as twine manufacturers. Dighañcī has an agriculture demonstration centre, a police station, four primary schools and a high school.

DUDHGAON.

Objects.

Dudheśvar. Temple.

Dudhgāṅv, with 6,559 inhabitants, is a village in Miraj *tālukā* lying 28.96 km (18 miles) to the west of Sāṅglī with which it is connected by the Sāṅglī-Aṣṭā-Dudhgāṅv road. It is primarily an agricultural village, chief crops grown being jowar, tobacco and ground-nut. Dudhgāṅv is noted for its nut crakers and footwear which find ready market not only within the district but also outside. A few handlooms are also working here. There are three primary schools of which two are Marāṭhī and one Urdū, a high school, a branch post office and a medical aid centre. There are temples dedicated to Dudheśvar, Pārasnāth, Māruti and Birobā. The village has a mosque and a *dargāh* too. It is said that in olden days the present site occupied by the inhabited locality was infested with dense forest growth and open patches of grasslands where the shepherds used to tend their cattle. Dudhgāṅv, then known as Kākḍevāḍī, was on the *malrān* that is to be seen a few furlongs away from the present site. It so happened that one of the milch cows of the village never yielded milk. It was subsequently discovered that this particular cow always let her milk at a particular spot in the forest. Out of curiosity the villagers excavated the spot and to their great surprise found a *liṅg* symbol which came to be called as Dudheśvar. A temple was built on the spot and gradually the settlement came to be shifted in the vicinity of the temple. The name of the village was also changed from Kākḍevāḍī to Dudhgāṅv. The temple is an old one-storeyed structure to which repairs were carried out in 1950. It has a 2.78 m^2 (30 ft. square) open courtyard where there is a 15.24 metres (50 ft.) high *dīpmāḷ* or lamp pillar. At the farther end of the *maṇḍap* or just near the entrance to the *gābhārā* is an image of *nandī* installed in the traditional pose. The *gābhārā* is 0.929 m^2 (10 ft. square) and in addition to the *svayambhu liṅg*, contains brass idols of Rāma, Lakṣmaṇa Sītā, and Hanumān. In the background is a flint-stone image of a *Devī*. A fair attended by nearly five to six thousand people is held in honour of Dudheśvar on *Māgha Vadya Amāvasyā*.

Pārasnāth Temple.

The Pārasnāth Jain *Mandir* is a two storeyed edifice built in honour of Pārasnāth, the 22nd Tīrthaṅkāra of the Jains. It has a grand *maṇḍap* with its pillars decorated with exquisite designs. The *maṇḍap* contains a brass image of Padmāvatī riding on a swan. In a small chamber are placed the idols of Gomant Svāmī Śāntināth and Pārśvanāth. The *gābhārā* contains small idols of 23 Tīrthaṅkāras besides the main image of Pārasnāth or Pārśvanāth which is 1.52 metres (five feet) tall and seated in a meditative pose. It is sheltered by a five hooded cobra of brass. Mahāvīr *Jayantī on Caitra Śuddha Trayodaśī* and *Pāḍvā* on *Caitra Pratipada* are celebrated. The former festival lasts for five days.

CHAPTER 19. Places, GOTKHINDI.

Gotkhindī (pop. 4,954) in Vāļvā *tālukā* is situated 14.48 km (9 miles) south-east of Islāmpūr and 3.21 km (2 miles) from the Mallikārjun hill known for its temple of Mallikārjun and the fair celebrated in honour of that deity. Plaintains are grown here in abundance and hence there is a proposal to set up a plaintain-powder manufacturing plant. Gotkhindi has two primary schools, a middle school, two libraries, a post office and a *vasatigṛha.* There is also a temple dedicated to Amṛteśvar.

HARIPUR.

Haripūr, with 1,976 inhabitants in 1961, is a village in Miraj *taluka* situated at the confluence of the Vārṇā and the Kṛṣṇā. It is considered to be a sacred place and has a temple dedicated to Saṅgameśvar. Devotees in large numbers visit the temple on every Monday of *Śrāvaṇa.* There is a primary school, a post office and a dispensary.

JATH.

Jath is the headquarters of the *tālukā* of the same name. It was the capital of the ex-Jath State. Jath Road on the Kolhāpur-Kurḍuvāḍī section of the South-Central Railway lying 16.09 km (10 miles) to the north-west is the nearest railway station. The Ciplun-Guhāgar-Bijāpūr road is the most important of the roads touching Jath. It has a post and telegraph office, a telephone exchange, a police station under a sub-inspector and a co-operative bank. Of the educational institutions, three high schools and two primary schools, one each for boys and girls, may be mentioned. There is also a veterinary dispensary and a civil hospital known as Putaļa Rāje hospital.

The chief occupation of the people is agriculture, sheep and cattle breeding. Besides the weekly market on Tuesdays, a cattle market is also held on Thursdays. Jath receives only 457 to 508 mm (18 to 20 inches) of rain annually and hence agriculture is very poor. The agriculturists mostly depend upon well irrigation. The chief *kharif* crops are groundnut and bajra while *rabi* crops are cotton, jowar, gram and wheat. Among the industries may be mentioned manufacture of brass utensils, woollen rugs and handloom cloth.

Jath has the old palace of the State Chief, partially in a decayed condition, a *Chatrī* to Ramrāv, and temples dedicated to Baṅkeśvar, Yallamā, Ambabai, Māruti and Rama, near the last of which a bust of Lokamānya Bal Gaṅgadhar Tiļak is installed. Of the temples only that of Baṅkeśvar and Yallamā *Devī* claim importance, the former because it is considered to be the presiding village deity and the latter on account of the annual fair held on *Mārgaśirṣa Vadya Ekādaśī.* It is attended by over 50,000 people. The *Chatrī,* about 0.85 km (half a mile) to the south of the village, is a monument to the memory of Rāmrāv Ābāsāheb Ḍafaḷe (1866-1928) of the Ḍafaḷe family. It stands in the middle of a spacious courtyard and consists of an outer hall and an inner chamber, the latter of which contains a marble statue of Rāmrāv in a sitting posture. The statue as well as the chamber are of marble. Rāmpūr fort is yet another object of historical importance about 4.82 km (3 miles) east of Jath. Today it lies amidst ruins.

CHAPTER 19. Places. JATH. History of the Cauhān-Ḍafaḷe Family of Jath.

The Ḍafaḷes of Jath, the rulers of the State of Jath in the Deccan-Mahārāṣṭra, trace their origin to the famous Dudāvat Hāḍā-Cauhāṇ Rajput family of Rājasthān. The Hāḍā-Cāuhāṇs highly distinguished themselves for their brilliance, and patriotism, especially fighting against the Moghal emperors. The Dudāvat branch of the Hāḍā-Cauhāṇ family migrated to the Deccan as a result of family feuds and fighting the Moghals. While Dudā, the son of the Rāv Surjan, died with his elder son fighting his way to the Deccan, his youngest son Śāmalsing kept up the noble family tradition. Śāmalsing died leaving his son Śārdūlsing, who was equally brave. Śardūlsing joined the Ādil Śāhī king of Bijāpūr through the good offices of the famous Bijāpūr general Rangti Bahalol Khān Miyān and was made *Jamidār* of Athṇī and given a *jāgīr*. Śārdūlsing married the grand-daughter of Lakhujī Jādhavrāv of Śindkheḍ, and the son from this union was named Edalājī or Eldojī.

The surname Ḍafaḷe, Ḍafaḷekar was first associated with the family from Edalājī or Eldojī in the year 1665 A.D. Eldojī was associated with Abdul Karim Bahalol Khān IV, the famous general of the Bijāpūr Ādil Śāhī kingdom. Eldojī was styled Hāḍā-Cauhān of Athṇī as he was the *Jamidār* of that place under the Bijāpūr kings. Eldojī married the daughter of Lakhājī More, who was the *paṭil* of Ḍafaḷāpūr and his son inherited the *pāṭilki vatan* of Ḍafaḷāpūr after the death of Lakhājī as Lakhājī had no male issue. The family thus gets the appellation of Ḍafaḷāpūre or Ḍafaḷe. Eldojī had two sons, Lakhājī and Saṭvājī. Lakhājī died issueless and was succeeded by his younger brother Saṭvājī who was very famous both as a general and a politician. Saṭvājī acquired the *jāgīr* of Jath and also among other high honours the *Deśmukhī vatan* of the four *pargaṇās* of Jath, Karajgi, Honvaḍ and Bārdol. He was also appointed to the *mansab* of six thousand cavalry and five thousand army, first in the year 1680 by the Sultān of Bijāpūr and this was again confirmed by the Emperor Aurangzeb in 1701 under a *sanad*. Satvājī was also honoured with the title of *vazīr* by the king of Bijāpūr under a *sanad*, dated 31st March 1681. Satvājī's only son Bābājī (Bāvājī) was a gallant warrior who fought bravely at the conquest of the fort of Sātārā. Bābājī was, however, seriously wounded during the battle and died at Khānāpūr on way back to Ḍafaḷāpūr. Saṭvājī had a gallant career at the Bijāpūr and Moghal courts as well as an independent authority. After the fall of Rāygaḍ he assisted Rājārām Chatrapatil and the Marāṭhā generals Santājī Ghorpade and Dhanājī Jādhav. Saṭvājī died in the year 1707 at Islāmpūr (Brahmapurī) while at the camp of Emperor Aurangzeb.

After Saṭvājī, his widowed daughter-in-law Yesubāī (commonly known as Āīsāheb) administered the *Jāgir* and the *vatan*. She was a very able, most respected and popular lady and ruled for 54 years. On Chatrapati Śāhū's return from the Moghal captivity there were family feuds at the Sātārā Court. Yesubāī always sided with the Chatrapati House, that is, Śāhū and Tārābāī, and

CHAPTER 19. Places. JATH. History of the Cauhāṇ-Ḍafaḷe Family of Jath.

thus incurred bitterness on the part of the *Peśvā* Yesubāī adopted Yaśvantrāv, the son of her step-brother-in-law Khānājī. The adoption took place with the approval of Chatrapati Śāhū. Yesubāī died in the year 1754 and was succeeded by her son Yaśvantrāv as ruler in the same year.

Yaśvantrāv had also a distinguished career. He was granted *mansab* of 3,000 horse with a monthly emolument of 13,40,000 *dāms* (equivalent to Rs. 33,500) and was required to serve with 1,000 horse and also the *Faujdārī* of Jath. With the advent of the Nizām's rule at Hyderābād there was some trouble, but the *Faujdārī* was again restored to Yaśvantrāv. Yaśvantrāv died in 1759 and was succeeded by his son Amṛtrāv. Amṛtrāv I ruled the State till 1799 in which year he died, and was succeeded by his son Khānājīrāv. Amṛtrāv fought in all battles with the Marāṭhā army.

Khānājīrāv ruled till 1816. During his reign, the advent of the British was taking place in the Deccan. Khānājīrāv fought under the Marāṭhā banner with his army at the famous battle of Kharḍā in 1795. After the death of Khānājīrāv his senior widow Reṇukābāī rules the State. Reṇukābāī was a very capable *Rāṇī* who signed the treaty with the British in 1820. Reṇukābāī died in the year 1822 and was succeeded by her co-widow Sāḷubāī. Before her death in 1823, Sāḷubāī adopted Rāmrāv I, a son of the Cauhāṇ Ḍafaḷe family collateral.

Rāmrāv I ruled till 1835 in a good family tradition manner. On his death in 1835, his widow Bhāgirathibāī succeeded him. Bhāgirathibāī ruled the State with ability till 1845, but before her death in that year, she adopted Amṛtrāv II from the Ḍafaḷe collateral family in the year 1841.

Amṛtrāv II was a minor when he was adopted. Amṛtrāv II was a spirited and patriotic-minded person, and, after he was invested with full ruling powers in 1855, he began to display his spirited and nationalistic-minded character. The then Viceroy and Governor-General of India, Lord Canning, granted an adoption *sanad* (dated 11th March 1862) to Amṛtrāv II in recognition to perpetuate the high status and honour of his family. The 1857 Independence Revolution was already on its way and the British suspected Amrtrāv's hand in the National Movement.

After a good deal of harassment and troubles to Amṛtrāv, the British attached the State and took away powers from Amṛtrāv in 1874 on the pretext of maladministration. Hundreds were arrested in the State and arms and guns were confiscated. The attachment of the State continued till 1885 while the British administered the State by appointing a *Kārbhārī*. The attachment was removed and powers were restored to Amṛtrāv in 1885. But things did not appear to improve with Amṛtrāv so far as the British were concerned and the State was again attached in the year 1889 and powers taken away from Amṛtrāv. The second attached still continued while Amṛtrāv died at Poona in 1892. The severity of the attachment could well be judged from the fact

that even Amṛtrāv's private property and *vatan* were also attached, and it was only the high ability and character of Rājā Amṛtrāv which enabled him to regain his private property and *vatan* with the final approval of the then Secretary of State, just before his death.

Amṛtrāv II had two wives, Lakṣmībai and Ānandibāī. He had no male issue but a daughter named Yaśodābāī from Anandibāīsāheb. Rājkumārī Yaśodābāī was married to Chatrapati Pratāpsiṅh *alias* Bhāusāheb Mahārāj of Sātārā on the 28th May 1800 at Sātārā with all pomp and pageantry.

In the year 1893, while the State was still under British administration, *Rāṇī* Lakṣmībāī with the approval of the government adopted Rāmrāv II, son of Ḍāfaḷe family collateral from Umarani, as heir and successor to Amṛtrāv II. Rāmrāv II was 8 years old (born 11th January 1886) at the time of his adoption. *Rāṇī* Lakṣmībāīsāheb died on March 28 in the year 1897. *Rājā* Rāmrāv II during his minority received very good education. He was first educated at Kolhāpūr in the Princes School under Mr. Candy. After that he was sent to the Rājkumār College at Rājkoṭ where he distinguished himself both as a scholar and a sportsman. Rāmrāv was a superb horseman befitting the traditions of his family. While studying at Rājkoṭ, Rāmrāv was invited to meet H.R.H. the Prince of Wales at Bombay during his visit to India in 1905. Rāmrāv on attaining his majority was invested with full ruling powers on 11th January 1907. He was a spirited person with a high sense of duty, character and culture and was always keen to uphold the rights and status of his State and his people. He introduced free primary and secondary education in the State, free medical aid, banking arrangements for the agriculturists, *nālā*-bunding and small tank schemes and many good laws for the welfare of his people. He ruled with benevolence and justice and worked towards the removal of untouchability and social injustice. He brought the Bārśī light railway into the State and constructed many buildings for the benefit of his subjects. He introduced local self-government in the State and thus associated the people with the administration of the State. He ably assisted the government during the World War I and maintained a company known as the Jath Company at the Marāṭhā Light Infantry Regimental Training Centre at Beḷgāṅv as a mark of his active assistance to the Territorial Army Scheme introduced in India.

Ḍafaḷāpūr was carved out as a separate estate under a family arrangement for the purposes of maintenance of the descendants of Dhoṇḍojī, the younger brother of Saṭvājī. During the reign of Rāmrāv II, in the year 1917, the Ḍafaḷāpūr Estate reverted back to the Jath State.*

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* Under Bombay Government G. R. No. 1091 of 1861, dated 18th March 1861, confirmed by the Secretary of State India Office, London, Despatch No. 34 of 1861, dated 30th August 1861.

CHAPTER 19. Places. JATH. History of the Cauhāṇ-Dafaḷe Family of Jath.

Rājā Rāmrāv II was married to Princess Putḷā Rāje, the second daughter of Rājā Śahājī Rāje Bhosle of Akkalkoṭ State, on 18th May 1902 at Akkalkot. Both the *Rājāsāheb* and *Rāṇisāhb* were actively connected with several social institutions, among them the famous Sevā Sadan Society of the late Prof. G. K. Deodhar of Pooṇā. Rāmrāv assisted many educational institutions in the Deccan including the Deccan Education Society's Willingdon College at Sāṅglī. He was also the President of the All India Marāṭhā Educational Conference at its session at Nāgpūr. *Rājā* Rāmrāv had four sons and three daughters. The sons Pratāpsiṅh, Vijayasiṅh, Ajitsiṅh and Udayasiṅh, and daughters Pramilārāje, Śakuntalārāje and Kamlārāje.

Rājā Rāmrāv II died on the 14th August 1928 at Jath, and *Yuvarāj* Vijayasiṅh succeeded to the *Gādi* as Ruler of Jath State the same year.

Rājā Vijayasiṅh I was born on 21st July 1909 at Jath. He was educated at the Deccan College at Pooṇā. He attended the Third Round Table Conference in Loṇḍon at the invitation of the British Government. He served the Indian Navy during World War II. He became a member of the Chamber of Princes in his own right. He introduced full responsible Government in the State in 1946 entrusting administration to popularly elected ministers. He also assisted many educational institutions in the Deccan and was the President of the All India Marāṭhā Educational Conference at its session at Mahāḍ. His younger brother *Rājkumār* Ajitsiṅh, educated in England, served the State and later appointed as the guardian to the minor Śivājī Mahārāj of Kolhāpūr by the Government of India in their service. *Rājkumār* Udayasiṅh, the youngest brother, was educated at Pooṇa. He served the Indian Navy during World War II.

Jath was a full-power State and the *Rājā* was a Member of the Chamber of Princes in his own right. The State was merged with the Indian Union on 8th March 1948 by a Treaty-Agreement between the Governor-General of India and the *Rājā* of Jath.

KADEGAON.

Kaḍegāṅv (pop. 4,367), is a village in Khānāpūr *tālukā* on the Ciplun-Karāḍ-Bijāpūr road, about 2.41 km (a mile and a half) to the west of Kaḍepūr, 19.31 km (twelve miles) east of Karhāḍ and 22.53 km (14 miles) west of Viṭe, the *tālukā* headquarters. It is situated on the bank of a stream known as *Kalevadyācā oḍhā*, forming part of the catchment area of Cikhlī canal. *Bājri*, jowar and groundnut are the principal crops grown. Friday is the bazar day. The village in olden days was walled with mud and stones with gates on all the sides flanked by bastions. To-day except for the bastion on the eastern side, nothing remains. Kaḍegāṅv has three primary schools, a high school, a maternity home, an *āyurvedic* and a veterinary dispensary. There is a co-operative society of weavers who weave coarse saris. There are the shrines of Nāth. Māruti, Rāma and Mahādev and a mosque.

Kadepur with 2,728 inhabitants, is a village in Khānāpūr *tālukā* lying 19.31 km (12 miles) west of Viṭe and 20.92 km (13 miles) east of Karhāḍ at the junction of Sātārā-Tāsgāṅv and Cipḷuṇ-Karhāḍ-Bijāpūr roads. The village agriculture has benefited to a large extent due to the Cikhlī canal. Well irrigation is also popular with as many as 60 oil engines installed on the available wells. There are two primary schools, a high school and a community hall. The high school and the community hall buildings were constructed at a total cost of Rs. 27,500. There is also a well-equipped gymnasium. The village is remarkable for an old temple standing on the knoll of a hill to the south-west and whose spire is a conspicuous object for miles around. It is very antique and is known as Ḍoṅgrāī temple. A bullock-cart track, cut in the hills, leads to it. The shrine is of masonry, walled around with the same stone. Ḍoṅgrāī idol is nearly 1.21 metres (four feet) in height and is depicted as trampling a lion under the feet. Within the same compound are small shrines dedicated to Vaḍlāī and Trivaṭikā, supposed to be sisters to Ḍoṅgrāī. Two fairs attended by over 2,000 persons are held in the months of *Āśvina* and *Śrāvaṇa*, respectively. Some three furlongs away is a large lake with a sparse tree growth around.

KARAGANI.

Karagaṇī, lying 57.93 km (36 miles) east of Viṭe, is a village in the newly constituted Āṭapāḍī *mahāl* with 7,144 inhabitants as per the 1961 Census. Before its inclusion in Āṭapāḍī *mahāl* it formed a part of Khānāpūr *tālukā*. It is well-known for the temple of Rāma and the weekly cattle and sheep market. The Śukrācārya *tīrtha* and the hill, the former of which attracts thousands of pilgrims every year, are nearby. The story goes that Śukrācārya who recited *Śrīmad-Bhāgavata* to king Parīkṣit of *Mahābhārat*, was engaged here in penance and severe religious austerities. Indra, learning of this, sent Raṁbhā, an *apsarā* of bewitching charms, to lead him astray from his path by her physical beauty. But Śukrācārya did not fall in the trap and made himself invisible in the mountains. The village has five primary schools, a middle school, an agriculture demonstration centre, a police out-post and a post office. Karagaṇī formerly belonged to the Chief of Aundh State.

KASABE DIGRAJ.

Kasabe Ḍigraj (pop. 5,938) is a village in Miraj *tālukā*, situated on the right bank of the river Kṛṣṇā about 8 km (five miles) from Sāṅglī. It is 1.60 km (one mile) off the Sāṅglī-Islāmpūr road with which it is connected by a *kuccā* road. It was the *sarañjām* village of the Cavhaṇs to whom it was granted by Chatrapati Śāhū of Sātārā in 1738 in lieu of military service rendered to the State. The *Peśvās* transferred them to serve under the Paṭvardhans of Miraj and later their services were commuted into cash payments. The *vāḍā* of the *Saranjāmdārs* though still in existence is much ruined, especially the bastions of the surrounding court wall. Being on the Kṛṣṇā bank it has some of the finest black soil but it is also sometimes in danger of being submerged during high floods. Digraj has two primary schools,

CHAPTER 19. Places. KASABE DIGRAJ.

two high schools of which one is agricultural, a branch post office, a police out-post and a dispensary. There are five Hindu temples, two Jain *bastīs* and a *dargāh*.

KASEGAON.

Kāsegāṅv, with 6,168 inhabitants, is a village in Vāḷvā *tālukā*, close to the Pooṇā-Bangalore highway, 17.70 km (eleven miles) south of Karhāḍ and 9.65 km (six miles) north of Peṭh. It is one of the most thriving villages in the *tālukā*, its chief products being tobacco and sugarcane. Pepper is also grown. Though small, it is a commercial centre of growing importance and there are several well-to-do merchants who are chiefly engaged in tobacco trade. Kāsegāṅv has a primary school, a high school where technical education is also imparted, civil and veterinary dispensaries, a police out-post and a sub-post and telegraph office. The high school building has a hostel attached to it, accommodating about 500 students. The handloom weavers of the village have formed a co-operative society, to which the government has provided ten powerlooms. The Sāṅglī sanitary sub-division has been entrusted with the task of providing drainage system to the village. There are two saw mills.

KAVALAPUR.

Kavaḷāpūr (pop. 6 891) is a village in Miraj *tālukā* 8 km (five miles) north-east of Sāṅglī, near a small stream which rising in the Daṇḍobā hills runs into the Kṛṣṇā. It was formerly known as Śiṅgṇāpūr and Kauṇḍanyapūr and is built on stony undulating ground choked in places by prickly pear. Drinking water is obtained from fairly large water tank near Kākaḍvāḍī within the village limits and from wells. The stream that flows by the village holds good water during the greater part of the year. In this stream, water can be had by digging pits at all times of the year. Nearby the village there is an airfield in whose vicinity there is yet another water tank. Kavaḷāpūr has two primary schools, a high school, 14 Hindu temples and a Jain *bastī*. Of the temples that of Siddheśvar attracts a fair which commences on *Caitra Paurṇimā* and lasts for five days. On the occasion, a considerable market is also held. It is attended by over a thousand persons. There is a combined village pancāyat office and rest-house.

KAVATHE MAHANKAL.

Kavaṭhe Mahāṅkāḷ (pop. 8,562), till recently a village in Miraj *tālukā*, has become the headquarters of the newly formed *mahāl* of the same name. It is largely agricultural, well supplied with water by Kamaṇḍalū river across which a dam has been laid at Kucī. It is known as Kucī *talāv* and irrigates over 347.22 hectares (858 acres) of land. Wells and a *nālā* flowing in the vicinity of the village are the sources of drinking water. The *grām-pancāyat* here has repaired the old roads, laid out some *kuccā* drains and sunk some more wells. In 1962-63 its total income was Rs. 33,059 and expenditure Rs. 33,257. There are two middle schools, a high school and veterinary and civil dispensaries. Kavaṭhe Mahāṅkāḷ has a large community of

weavers weaving saris and cloth on handlooms, there being co-operatives of weavers, carpenters and blacksmiths. There are temples dedicated to Mahākālī and Mallikārjun. The idol of Mahākālī was said to have been found in the above referred *nālā*. The second name *viz.*, Mahāṅkāḷ seems to be a corrupt form of Mahākālī. The *Navrātra* festival is celebrated at the Mahākālī temple. The Mallikārjun fair commences on *Mahāśivrātra* day and lasts for five days, its notable feature being the large cattle market at which a fine breed of *khillār* bulls is available.

KHANAPUR.

Khānāpūr, with 8,836 inhabitants according to the Census of 1961, is a village in Khānāpūr *tālukā* lying about 16.09 km (ten miles) east of Viṭe, the *tālukā* headquarters. It gives its name to the *tālukā* and from its greater proximity to the fort of Bhupalgaḍ was probably in early times the administrative headquarters of the surrounding territory. The village had stone and mud walls now completely ruined and gates at the north-west and the east flanked by bastions. There is a large market street and several smaller branch streets and more than one large mansion. The Khānāpūr plateau, in the western half, produces a considerable amount of good unirrigated wheat. The land is on a higher plain than the rest of the *tālukā*, the whole of which is on an average 76.20 metres (250 ft.) above the Kṛṣṇā valley. About 3.21 km (two miles) east of Viṭe the ground again rises to more than 30.48 metres (100 ft.). This second plateau extends from Paḷaśī in the south-east to Balavaḍi and Revaṇgāṁv in the north-west. There is a drop of about 152.40 metres (500 ft.) in the Māṇ valley in the eastern side and the rest is a straggling outline of hills in the south-west and west forming shallow valleys and ravines. This plateau is better off for rains than almost any other part of the *tālukā* and to this are due the regular and good wheat crops. Towards the south-east, however, the land is wretchedly barren and rocky and the country very wild while the subsistence becomes as difficult as in the valley of Māṇ. To the south of the village is a small stream which joins the Āgarṇī, a feeder of the Kṛṣṇā about 1.60 km (a mile) to the east. The supply of water is limited and precarious. However, the Miraj sanitary sub-division has been entrusted with the task of providing tap water to the village as well as drainage facilities. Khānāpūr has an *āyurvedic* dispensary, a leprosy centre and a sub-centre of the veterinary dispensary. It is one of the centres of supplying breeding bulls to the villages coming within the fold of such centres. It has 15 primary schools, one middle school, a high school, three libraries and a lodging and boarding house for the poor students. Of late an agricultural demonstration centre has been opened to give practical training to the agriculturists.

KHARSUNDI.

Kharsundī, originally a village in Khānāpūr *tālukā* with 2,165 inhabitants as per the 1961 Census, is now included in Āṭapāḍī *mahāl*. It has two primary schools and a high school conducted by the *Rayat Śikṣan Saṁsthā*. Kharsuṇḍī is well-known for the

shrine of Siddheśvar, popularly known as Kharsuṇḍ Siddh said to be of considerable antiquity. At that time, the site occupied by the village was a forest grassland and perhaps came to be populated with the building of the above mentioned temple. A story as to how the present temple came to be built is told by the local inhabitants as also by the *Purāṇas*. It is said that Mhasvaḍ was one the seven residential places of Siddh *munī*, a devotee of Śaṅkar. Now at a place called Ciñcolī, 1.60 km (one mile) distant from Kharsuṇḍī, there lived one Nāyappā Gavḷī who was an intense devotee of Mhasvaḍ Siddh. On every Saturday Nāyappā made a trip to Mhasvaḍ and paid homage to the idol of Siddh with offerings of milk and curds. But in his old age he could not make the Saturday trip. His devotion was so intense that the God being pleased with him appeared in a dream and is believed to have told him "I am very much pleased with your selfless devotion and am grieved at your handicap in coming over to Mhasvaḍ. You no longer need come to Mhasvaḍ. I shall appear in the meadows where you tend your cattle. You will find one of your heifers sprouting forth beestings and that will automatically take the shape of two *liṅgs*". From that day Nāyappā kept a close watch over his herd and one day was pleased to see the dream come true. People from far and near began to come to the place to witness the miracle, for a miracle it was indeed.

A temple was constructed to house these *liṅgs*. It is built in brick and mortar and the gate of the compound wall surrounding it is surmounted by a music gallery. In front of the temple there are as many as eleven *dīpmāḷs*, varying from 6 to 9½ metres (20 to 30 ft.) in height. The temple can be conveniently divided into three parts. The outer hall measures 15.24 x 15.24 metres (50' x 50') and contains a brass image of the heifer believed to have sprouted beestings. The middle hall is much smaller and contains a slab of stone. It is believed that any pronouncement made by mounting this slab comes true. To the left hand of the visitor, in a small chamber is the *samādhi* of Nāyappā Gavḷī. Two brass plated pillars flank the passage leading to the vestibule containing the two *liṅgs* and the idols of Bhairavnāth or more popularly known as Kharsuṇḍ Siddh and that of Bāḷābāī, his consort. It is crowned with a tall *śikhara*. Within the compound to the left hand side of the temple there is a *dharmaśāḷā* as also some corridors.

This place was formerly the domain of Pant Pratinidhi of Aundh State and the then Government of Aundh instituted the practice of holding *yātrās* at Kharsuṇḍī, Dighañcī and Āṭapāḍī. These *yātrās* were principally held for the purpose of displaying the *khillār* breed of cattle, for which this part of the country is so well-known. The *khillār* type of cattle are in great demand and hence these *yātrās* are frequented by a large number of cattle dealers and buyers. At Kharsuṇḍī this practice seems to have begun some three centuries ago and was instituted by one

KHARSUNDI.

Eknāth Ānandrāv Deśpaṇḍe under the aegis of the *ex*-State of Aundh. Two fairs, one on *Caitra Vadya Aṣṭamī* and the other in the month of *Pauṣa,* are held in honour of Kharsuṇḍ Siddh. While the first one has religious importance, the second is important for the cattle market. About 50,000 persons gather on the occasions.

KIRLOSKARVADI.

Kirloskarvāḍī in Tāsgāṅv *tālukā* is a railway station on the Pooṇā-Miraj section of the South-Central Railway. It is an industrial centre of great importance known after the Kirloskars, of whom Śrī Lakṣmaṇrāv Kirloskar made a humble beginning towards the manufacture of iron and steel products. Kirloskars in the following generations opened new branches at various places thus expanding the concern. Modestly begun Kirloskar Bros., are now by far the largest and the most up-to-date manufacturers of a variety of machines, agricultural implements, furniture, hospital equipment, etc. In the days when the factory was just established Kirloskarvāḍī was a desolate place. Nothing of the handsome township with its well laid out roads, its electric lights, its fine school and hospital and the gymnasium was to be seen. To-day the whole face of the place has undergone a complete change. The township is also expanding alongside the growth and development of the factory. Besides regular educational institutions, classes on a wide range of useful subjects are also conducted for adult workers. A public dispensary maintained by the firm renders prompt and efficient medical aid. Special arrangements for the welfare of the women of the colony with particular regard to maternity are made. The maternity home is named after the late Mrs. Rādhābāī Kirloskar, the wife of the founder, to whom a statue is erected at the entrance.

Kirloskarvāḍī affords ample facilities for cultural as well as social activities. There is the gymkhana which conducts many outdoor as well as indoor games ; there is a large wrestling pit and a spacious public hall named as *Samāj Mandir.* In this hall many social and cultural gatherings are held. Workers are thus enabled to spend their leisure hours in such cultural and social activities which relieve them from the monotony of the factory routine. *Manohar,* the widely-read Marāṭhī monthly was originally published from Kirloskarvāḍī. Illiteracy and untouchability have been tackled in such a way as to merit the attention of urban and rural areas. The factory at Kirloskarvāḍī employs a good many workers from the surrounding villages.

KUNDAL.

Kuṇḍal (pop. 9,431) is a village in Tāsgāṅv *tālukā* lying 8 km (five miles) north of Vāḷvā, and about 1.60 km (a mile) from the end of the long spur which shoots off from the Mahādev range 48.28 km (thirty miles) north at Moḷ in Khaṭāv. Kuṇḍal has handloom and khandsari industries on small scale, a co-operative oil mill, a high school and a *vasatigṛha.* It was a village in the *ex*-State of Aundh and was held by the Pant Pratinidhi. It was

incorporated in the Tāsgāṅv *tāluka* of the sāṅglī district in 1949 on the formation of that district. The village is supposed to be the same as Kauṇḍaṇyapūr mentioned in *Purāṇic* legends and to have been the residence of *Rājā* Hiṅgaṇdev, probably the same as Devagirī Yādav king Siṅghaṇ I or Siṅghaṇ II. The village was once surrounded by a solid rampart wall but it lies amidst ruins now. There are three primary schools, a high school, a library and two dispensaries. Kirloskarvāḍī is the nearest railway station, about 6.43 km (four miles) away.

Caves.

The chief object of interest about the village is a set of Brahmanical caves in the spur above mentioned. The face of the spur is generally north-east and south-west, but at the end it is splayed into two branches which form a widemouthed crescent facing east. In the southern arm of this crescent facing north-east is the chief set of thirteen caves and on the south face are three more. The first thirteen are all in a ledge of the hill about 91.44 metres (300 ft.) above the plain. Of these the first five face approximately north, the next three north-east, and the remaining five due east. They are approached by a flight of steps leading up through an archway 1.82 metres (six feet) broad and deep, 4.26 metres (14 ft.) high, and girt by side walls 2.74 metres (nine feet) wide. Two hundred and fifteen paces further on is the second gateway 6.70 metres (22 ft.) broad, 4.87 metres (16 ft.) high and 1.82 metres (six feet) deep, and crowned by a music chamber or *nagārkhānā* 5.48 metres (18 ft.) long, 2.43 metres (eight feet) high, and 4.87 metres (16 ft) broad. Eighteen steps further on is the third gateway nearly on a level with the caves. This gateway is 7.31 metres (24 ft.) wide, 3.04 metres (ten feet) high, and 1.52 metres (five feet) deep. This leads on to a paved terrace built upon the rock and supported by a solid masonry wall about 4.37 metres (15 ft.) high following the line of the crescent. About 7.92 metres (26 ft.) further on is a large hall supported on twenty-four pillars in four parallel rows making three aisles. The pillars are of brick, 0.304 metre (one foot) in diameter and 2.43 metres (eight feet) high. Except in the aisle formed by the third and fourth rows to the southward, where it is vaulted, the roof is flat. A door from this hall leads into what now must be termed the chief cave 9.14 x 6.09 x 2.43 metres (30′ x 20′ x 8′), a temple of Vīrbhadra, a *gaṇa* produced by Mahādev. The entrance is only by a small rock-cut door 0.609 metres (two feet) wide. The chamber inside is 0.743 m^2 (eight feet square) and 1.82 metres (six feet) high and is walled in. On each side of the centre door is another small door leading to the holy circuit or *pradakṣiṇā* which is 4.26 metres (14′) to the back of the cave, 5.94 metres (19′ 6″) across leaving a passage 1.82 metres (six feet) wide behind the image 4.41 metres (14′ 6″) wide on the east and 2.13 metres (7′) wide on the west. In the centre of the image chamber is a 0.914 metres (three feet) high image of Vīrbhadra. It is of white stone apparently rough trap. In the right hand is a sword and in the left a bow. In the west wall of the hall is a

very small door leading into the second cave (20′ × 11′ × 7′ = 6.09 × 3.35 × 2.13 metres) which is dedicated to the goddess Ḍalimā. Immediately in front of it is a small built temple of Mahādev 1.11 m² (12′ square) and 2.43 metres (8′) high. To the east of the Vīrbhadra cave are two tanks about 0.552 m², (six feet square) with water leading into one another. East of the tank is cave V. (14′ × 10′ × 6′ = 4.26 × 3.04 × 1.82 metres) with a small opening. To the west of the Ḍālimā temple is cave VI. (16′ × 9′ × 7′ = 4.87 × 2.74 × 2.13 metres) best known as the cooking cave; close by it is cave VII. (16′ × 11′ × 7′ = 4.87 × 3.35 × 2.13 metres) next which is cave VIII. (24′ × 18′ × 8′ = 7.31 × 5.48 × 2.43 metres) known as the *kaceri* or court. These three caves are in the angle of the crescent, face north-east and are entered each by separate small doors. Next to it and facing north is cave IX. A small excavation containing two small tanks full of water and adjoining these is the washing or *snān* cave X. (13′ × 8′ × 7′ = 3.96 × 2.43 × 2.13 metres). North of it is cave XI. known as the *bhāndārghar* or dining cave (27′ × 21′ × 6′ = 8.22 × 6.40 × 4.87 metres) a double hall with three pillars and a tank adjoining it. The next two caves XII. (12′ × 7′ × 6′ = 3.65 × 2.13 × 1.82 metres) and XIII. [1](14′ × 13′ × 6′ = 4.26 × 3.96 × 1.82 metres) are devoted to no special purpose. All the caves seem to have been cut out with the chisel and none of them seem natural excavations. The rock inside is soft and of dark brown colour. The outside walls and partitions dividing caves from tanks are very thin and crumbling away. The hall gateways and terraces as also the temple of Mahādev are all modern. Except perhaps that of Ḍālimā the images do not look old. The hall and the chief gateway were made by one Basappā Limpṇe, a Vāṇī of Kuṇḍal about 1870 A.D. at a cost of Rs. 25,000. A fair attended by about one thousand people is held on the no-moon of *Kārtika* or October-November. The three caves on the south can be reached by following the ledge round the east end of the cliff for about 0.85 km (half a mile). On turning the corner a small terrace is reached in which is one of the caves. From the plain only the small door of one of the caves can be seen about 91.44 metres (300 ft.) up the hill. It is reached direct by a very steep path the last 9.14 metres (30 ft.) cut into steps leading on to a terrace. The more easterly of the two caves is entered by a small door about 1.21 metres (four feet) high by 0.609 metres (two feet) wide. It is 6.09 metres (20 ft.) by 4.87 metres (16 ft.) and 2.13 metres (seven feet) high and has at the back an open recess (7′ × 6′ × 7′ = 2.13 × 1.82 × 2.13 metres). In the back are figures of Rāma, Sitā and Lakṣmaṇa rudely sculptured in relief. Rāma, is 1.82 metres (six feet) high and Sītā and Lakṣmaṇa on each side of him are each 1.21 metres (four feet) high. Parallel with the recess is a small tank sunk in the floor and off the rest of the cave is a small cell 0.557 m² (six feet square). It is about 1.21 metres (four feet) higher than the main cave and communicates with it by a small door and some steps. The western

[1] 1.82 metres (six feet) given as the height of both the cases are average height as the roofs slope a good deal.

CHAPTER 19. Places. KUNDAL. Caves.

cave about ten paces distant is a cell with a temple and measures 7.62 metres (25 ft.) by 6.70 metres (12 ft.) wide. Inside it is built a small modern hall resting on seventeen pillars six of them attached to the walls. This inner hall measures 3.96 x 3.04 x 1.82 metres (13′ x 10′ x 6′) and has a roof 1.21 metres (four feet) lower than the cave roof. The remaining space on the west of this hall is a cell with a tank at the north-west end. At the back of the hall are images of Śiv with Pārvatī and Gaṅgā one on each side, each about 0.974 metres (3′) high by 0.609 metres (2′) wide, also very rudely sculptured in relief. In this set the eastern caves are Vaiṣṇava and the western Śaiva[1].

MACHCHINDRA-GAD.

Macchindragaḍ, the most southern of the chain of hill-forts built in 1676 by Śivājī, is a solitary round-topped hill 16.09 km (ten miles) south-east of Karhāḍ. The hill lies close to the west of the Karhāḍ-Tāsgāṅv road which runs through the gorge dividing the fort hill from the main range which stretches from Moḷ in Khaṭāv to Kuṇḍal in Tāsgāṅv. The fort has few features of interest. The ascent is by a steep but well kept path on the north from a hamlet lying close under the hill side. The hill is about 243.84 metres (800 feet) above the plain and the ascent which is by sharp zigzags occupies about twenty minutes. The last third of the ascent is by steps cut in the rock. The top is waving and surrounded by walls but with scarcely any scarp. The walls are of loose small dry stone about 2.43 to 3.65 metres (eight to twelve feet) high on the outside and 1.82 metres (six feet) inside and about 1.82 metres (six feet) thick at the foot with a 0.304 (two feet) parapet. The entrance is by a rough-pointed arched gateway now broken down. There are remains of a few buildings, and on the south is a small temple of Macchindranāth. A devotee of this god came from the village of Kaḷe 8 km (five miles) south of Karhāḍ in about 1830 and revived the worship of the god. His descendants still reside on the hill and atttend to the temple. Near the temple are several tombs of ascetics and *satī* monuments with stone facsimiles of hand and foot prints. On the north about 45.72 metres (50 yds.) south-west of the gate is a large pit or tank dug out of the rock which generally holds dirty water. It was made at the same time as the fort. There is another spring on the south which is used by the *Gosāvīs* living on the hill and by the people chiefly from the neighbouring village who frequent a yearly fair. The path up is kept in repair for this fair and the approaches to the temple on the top are lined with trees also planted and maintained out of the fair receipts. The fort was garrisoned by the *Pratinidhi* till it was taken by Bāpū Gokhale about 1810. It was then managed by Gokhale for the *Peśvā* till May 1818 when it was surrendered without resistance to a British force under Colonel Hewitt.

MADHAVNAGAR.

Mādhavnagar, with 5,811 inhabitants in 1961, is a small but well-planned town in Miraj *tālukā* 4.82 km (three miles) north of Sāṅglī. It is a railway station on the Pooṇā-Miraj section of the South-Central Railway and is also connected with Sāṅglī by a fine

[1] Compare Dr. Burgess' Lists, 59.

MADHAV-NAGAR.

tar road. The town owes much to Mādhavrāv Paṭvardhan of the Paṭvardhan family and who was the collateral of the Miraj *Rājā* and the chief of Budhgāṅv. He established Mādhavnagar, which prior to 1935 had but a railway station and a few old and decrepit houses scattered here and there. The town derives its name from the founder. Today Mādhavnagar is inhabited by many a well-to-do and prosperous merchant and trader. Besides the usual educational institutions, there is a police station and a post and telegraph office.

MAHULI.

Māhulī (pop. 1848) is a village in Khānāpūr *tālukā* 16.09 km (ten miles) north of Viṭe on the Viṭe-Māyaṇī road. It has a remarkable temple dedicated to Kadaṁbā *Devī*. The temple is in the centre of the village, though not easy to find out. It is partially in a dilapidated condition. It is about 12.19 metres (40 ft.) long by about 6.09 metres (20 ft.) broad and consists of a hall or *Maṇḍap* with a shrine and vestibule, but without a spire. It is built of gray trap on a platform about 3.04 metres (ten feet) above the average level of the village streets. It is closely surrounded by mud houses and therefore seen to less advantage than many of the old temples which are usually found in vacant spaces and often outside the villages. It is raised on a stone plinth about 0.914 metre (three feet) high, the face of which is cut in a lozenge pattern. The walls are different from the usual type of *Hemāḍpantī* temples in the district being elaborately carved externally, specially the shrine wall. The hall or *maṇḍap* is 1.85 m^2 (20 ft. square) and the walls reach to the roof not as usual left solely for support to the pillars. The line of the front or east wall is straight and contains a square entrance but is in bad repair, the carved work nearly defaced and everywhere blocked up with mud and stones put in to prop it up. The side walls, which also contain two square entrances, are as usual rather wider at the centre, the outline slightly resembling the cruciform. The stones are pointed in beaded and tooth work and floral decorations are faintly carved on them. The vestibule to the shrine is about 1.52 x 5.79 metres (five feet by nineteen). The shrine is star-shaped and about 4.57 x 6.09 metres (15′ x 20′) at the widest part. At the west, north and south sides are flat faces connected by zigzags showing five corners. These walls are carved in much the same way as the hall or *maṇḍap* walls but far more elaborately. The faces contain niches with images of deities fairly well executed. The image in the north niche is Mahiṣasur *Devī* riding on a buffalo and holding the child Paraśurāma in her lap, the image on the west is of Narsiṁha, the man-lion ; and the image on the south is Gaṇapati and ṣadānana or Kārtikeya. The roof has heavy eaves of carved stone but scarcely projecting and modern brick parapet. The hall or *maṇḍap* inside has four pillars in the centre carved in the usual pattern. The shafts are of a single block and about 2.13 metres (seven feet) high. The basement is square and the rest of the rock is cut into cylindrical square and other sections all carved in floral and beaded patterns. Under these four pillars is the round slab called *raṅgaśilā* for religious dancing and the like. Embedded in the walls are twelve

other semi-detached pillars of the same pattern connected with the roof by crochets of a scroll pattern. The roof is divided by cross beams into nine compartments cut in the lozenge pattern. But the most noteworthy thing in the interior is the sort of screen which divides the shrine or *gābhārā* vestibule from the *manḍap*. It is of pierced stone work very elaborately cut in lozenges of a sort of tooth pattern exceedingly elegant and striking. The shrine is a plain square chamber and contains nothing but two projecting slabs or stone symbols of *Devī* with the *ling* and *śāluṅkā* of Mahādev in front. Though so small inside, the carving of the temple is superior to anything in the district. The temple is said to have been built by a *kāsār* or bangle-maker more than a thousand years ago. A branch of the *Kāsār's* family is said to reside at present in Kolhāpūr without any connection with Māhulī.

Māhulī has two primary schools, a high school, a primary teachers' training college and a *vasatigṛha* run by the *Rayat Śikṣaṇ Saṁsthā*. It is served by a multipurpose co-operative society, a sub-post office, veterinary and civil dispensaries and a maternity home. To the east of the village at a distance of only 1.60 km (one mile) is the famous shrine of Revaṇ Siddh.

MALGAON.

Mālgāṅv, with a population of 11.540 as per the Census of 1961, is a village in Miraj *tālukā* lying 9.65 km (six miles) to the north of Miraj with which it is connected by a road. Betel-leaf, produced here in abundance, is the major cash-crop and is known for its good quality. An area of about 141.64 hectares (350 acres) is under betel-leaf orchards and daily two truck loads of betel-leaves are sent to places like Bombay, Pooṇā, Kheḍ and Cipluṇ. Though at present water is obtained from the wells, a scheme estimated to cost nearly Rs. 76,000 would soon be undertaken to supply tap water. Besides the primary schools there is a middle school, a high school, a police station, a post office, four gymnasiums and a maternity home. A large weekly market, also attended by the inhabitants of the surrounding villages, is held on Fridays.

Bāvā Phan Dargāh.

One of the objects of interest in the village is the *dargāh* of Bāvā Phan, a Muslim *avaliyā*, which was built during the regnal period of Auraṅgzeb. To this day it is in a very good condition. Large blocks of black stone have been employed for the construction of the edifice as well as the surrounding wall. The *dargāh* is hardly half a furlong from the Mālgāṅv bus stand. It has solid fortifications around and is entered by a lofty gate. Inside the enclosure is a spacious courtyard in the centre of which stands the tomb of Bāvā Phan. Thousands of people, men, women and children, following different religious faiths and coming from within and without the district flock to the *dargāh* on the day of the *urūs* which falls on the first Tuesday after *Kārtika Paurṇimā*. The *urūs* lasts for two days only and the attendance is well over twelve thousand. In front, the *dargāh* has three arches and in the centre of the inner chamber lie interred the mortal remains of Bāvā Phan. At the site where the tomb stands today was a small lake and it is here that he is supposed to have passed his evenings in religious contemplation (meditation). After his death this

Bāvā Phan Dargāh.

dargāh was erected by some pious persons, the lake having disappeared before long due to the constant drain of mud and silt. Behind it there is a well whose waters are supposed to have potent effects. It is popularly believed that if a patient drinks some water after performing appropriate prayers at the *dargāh* he is cured of his disease. Hence this well has come to be credited with sanctity and considered to be the holy Gaṅgā itself. Many legends have grown around the self of Bāvā Phan and his divine powers. Many superhuman feats have been ascribed to him. But the tale most frequently told may be recited here. The *avalīyā* often went round the village for alms. One day while on his usual round he saw tears rolling down the eyes of the wife of a certain Bābū Vaṇī also known as Bābū Siddh, a shop-keeper in the village. Bāvā Phan was deeply touched by the sight and on asking the reason of her affliction found out, that she had no issue. Bāvā Phan assured her that he would show her a way and from thence everyday he began to teach her a couplet of *mantras* in order to enable her to have children. Selfish people of the village could not bear this and in order to thwart their attempt played a trick and succeeded in poisoning Bābū Siddh's mind against the character of the *avalīyā* and the chastity of his wife and promised to apprehend them red handed. As usual when the Bāvā entered the house some persons locked the door against the outside and summoned Bābū who was at his shop then. But on opening the door, the villains to their great mortification could not find the Bāvā. Instead they found a newly born child at the feet of Bābū's wife who was still engrossed in memorizing the *mantras*. Too proud to admit the divinity in the person of the Bāvā they thought of yet another trick and having looted Bābū's shop sent him a word ascribing the robbery to the Bāvā. Bābū on rushing to his shop found all the things in tact. After this Bāvā was left alone. Bābū Siddh performed the tonsure ceremony of the child and put it in the cradle, but mysteriously enough the child also disappeared very soon and even to this day the hair or the *jāvaḷ* and the cradle have been preserved in the mansion of Bābū Siddh. Every devotee or pilgrim after paying his or her respects at the *dargāh* of Bāvā Phan visits the mansion of Bābū Siddh where it is fervently believed that if a vow or *navas* is pronounced the barren women get children. And to comply with their vows in fulfilment of the wishes people offer small golden, silver or wooden cradles according to their means and ability. Bāvā Phan has numerous devotees coming from all castes, creeds and communities following different religious faiths.

MALLIKARJUN HILL.

Mallikārjun hill in Vāḷvā, about 304.80 metres (1,000 feet) above the plain, is a point in the range of hills which breaks off from the Kaṇḍūr spur at Yeupe about 19.31 km (twelve miles) south-west of Karhāḍ and with a break at the joint boundaries of the villages of Iṭkare and Yeḍe Nipāṇī runs as far as Pokharṇī and Bāvacī close to Aṣṭe. The hill is more or less conical in shape with a flat plateau of about 4.04 hectares (ten acres) on the top. The ascent can be made from Mālevāḍī on the south or from Yeḍe or Goṭkhiṇḍī on the north from 3.21 to 4.82 km (two or three

CHAPTER 19. Places. MALLIKARJUN HILL.

miles) either way. On the flat plateau at the summit are three large tombs of Musalmān saints or *pīrs* and several smaller ones much resorted to by devout Musalmāns. The chief mausoleum is of Cānd, a native of Bokhārā in Ṭārṭary who is said to have lived here as a devotee and died some three or four and a half centuries ago. A hundred years later one Gavri built him the mausoleum which is a whitewashed stone building with a small dome about 1.85 m^2 (twenty feet square) and 6.09 (twenty feet) high. Another follower Badruddin of Baghdād in Turkey in Asiā came some 130 years ago and his disciple one Sātū, a Marāṭhā from Saṅglī built his mausoleum. Aṇṇājī, son of Sātū, built another to his father's memory adjoining Badruddin's and Aṇṇājī's son Nāīkjī later used to live in attendance at the mosque. Nāīkjī has built a Hindū temple to his father Aṇṇājī which lies on the south-east while ascending the northern slope from Goṭkhiṇḍī. The temple of Mallikārjun lies about 213.36 metres (700 feet) off the plain. At less than a third of the way or about 60.96 metres (200 feet) from the plain is the Pātāḷ Gaṅgā spring. From here a path with steps leads about 134.11 metres (400 feet) higher up to the first terrace which was built on to the side of the hill in mortared masonry by one Sidāppā Gogre of Panhāḷā about 1830. About 22.86 metres (75 ft.) higher is another and the chief terrace also built by Gogre about 18.28 metres (sixty feet) long by 6.09 metres (twenty ft.) broad and on a level with some caves which are dedicated to Mallikārjun. Round the north-east and west sides up to the various buildings is a parapet. The entrance is up some steps a little east of the centre. A little west of the centre and in the middle of the terrace are two lamp pillars or *dīpmaḷs* with a basil platform between.

Beginning from the east the first is a modern cave-like structure of two masonry arches and a flat roof built about 100 years ago by one Liṅgappā, a Vāṇī. Close to it on the west is an old cave 7.62 metres (twenty-five feet) long by 2.74 metres (nine feet) deep and 1.82 metres (six feet) high with two arches and a partition in the centre forming a double cell. The roof is flat and the arched entrance modern. The third close by is a small temple of Kāḷbhairav with a conical tower also modern. Adjoining this to the west is a large cave 6.09 metres (20 ft.) long by 5.48 metres (18 ft.) deep with two arches at the face. An open space of 1.21 metres (four feet) is followed by a masonry verandah of three arched divisions and evidently modern 6.40 metres (21 ft.) long and 3.04 metres (ten feet) broad. In a line with this is another verandah of four divisions a pillar supporting each. The verandah is not more than 1.82 metres (six feet) high, about 6.40 (twenty-one feet) long and 2.43 metres (eight feet) broad, built of masonry and against the face of the rock in which a small door about 1.52 metres (five feet) high by 0.609 metres (two feet) broad is cut. Inside is the main temple, a flat roofed chamber (21′×16′×5′ ×10′=6.40×4.87×1.77 metres) the roof supported on four pillars in three courses two rectangular with a cylindrical one between them. The space between the pillars from east to west is about 3.14 metres (ten feet) and between the two southern pillars a

vestibule 4.87 metres (sixteen feet) by 3.04 metres (ten feet) is made leading to a small door 1.21 metres (four feet) by 0.609 metres (two feet) which opens into the shrine or *gābhārā*. The shrine is about 3.04 x 2.43 metres (ten feet by eight) and contains a *liṅg* of Somnāth Mahādev. Westward from the outer division of the *maṇḍap* is a chamber containing the *liṅg* of *Mallikārjun* Mahādev. The roof here is very thin and a conical spire has been built upon the rock by some modern restorer. To the west of this again is a small stone basin. To the north and in a line with the verandah of the *maṇḍap* is the *nandī* chamber also dug in the rock which projects here beyond the entrance of the *maṇḍap*. Again upon the terrace and in front of this is another modern *nandī* chamber surmounted with a drum chamber or *nagārkhānā* built 110 years ago by a Vāṇī. He also built the verandah in front of the chief *maṇḍap*. A little above and adjoining the pond next the *nandi* cave is a double flat-roofed cave 5.18 metres (seventeen feet) long east to west by 3.65 metres (twelve feet) deep and 1.82 metres (six feet) high and to the west of these are two more masonry cells built by Sakhobā a Vāṇī, of Śirāḷā. The path to Mālevāḍī leads past a small spring in a stone basin, the water of which however is not used. Further on the south side is another spring constantly used about 201 metres (220 yards) from Mallikārjun's temple and about 27 metres more from the Musalman tombs above.

Nothing is known of the maker of the caves which are admitted to be ancient though artificial. The sage Agastya mentioned in the Karvīr *Māhātmya* as the devotee of Mallikārjun is generally accredited with being the builder. Somnāth is said to be the older form of the deity. Its position would make it probable that it is the chief one but the only fair held here is in honour of Mallikārjun on the first and last Mondays of *Śrāvaṇa* or July-August, when about 5,000 people assemble and the god's palanquin or *pālkhī* is carried in procession. The temple is a favourite spot of worship with the Jains and Liṅgāyat Vāṇīs. Sidappā Gogre, the Vāṇī of Panhāḷā made extensive repairs and built the very fine terraces and his sons set aside a portion of their earnings for this purpose year by year. The pillars of the *maṇḍap* are very curious and are sharply cut, while the roof and wall doors are the same. Except a little moulding the doors have no carving. There are no signs in any of the caves of stone benches or beds and the set is classed by Dr. Burgess as Brahmanical, the pillars being of about the twelfth and thirteenth centuries.[1].

MANERAJURI.

Maṇerājurī with a population of 8,019 according to the 1961 Census, is largely an agricultural village in Tāsgāṅv *tālukā* situated on the Sāṅglī-Āṭapāḍī road, 11.26 km (seven miles) to the east of Tāsgāṅv. Mādhavnagar and Bhilavaḍī are the nearest railway stations both of which are about 22.53 km (14 miles) distant from it. The following story is told about the establishment of the village. Maṇi and Malli were two *Daityas*, both of whom were the devotees of Śiva. They had an enemy by name Khaṇḍobā

[1] Cave Temples of India, pp. 427-428.

CHAPTER 19.

Places.

MANERAJURI.

who was also a worshipper of śiva. None could overcome each other. Khaṇḍobā then went to the south of Daṇḍobā hill and established a township which is the present Khaṇḍe Rājurī. Maṇi established his kingdom to the east of the same hill and it came to be called as Maṇi Rājuri. Maṇerājurī is the corrupt form of Maṇi Rājurī.

The villages of Maṇerājurī and Ārag were granted to Anubāī, the younger daughter of the first *Peśvā* Bāḷājī Viśvanāth, who was married to Nārāyaṇrāv Ghorpaḍe (formerly Jośī), regarded as the son of Santājī Ghorpaḍe. Prior to this the rights of this villages were held by the Garūḍ family, who opposed Anubāī taking possession of the villages. This brought Bāḷājī Viśvanāth on the scene who succeeded in taking over the villages and handing them over to Anubā.. Narāyaṇrav died without leaving any heir and hence Anubai adopted one. It was at this time that two *vāḍās* were built, one each at Maṇerājuri and Ārag. At the very same time a *kuṇḍa* for the Ramliṅg spring which is nearby the Mahādev temple of the village was built. It is 1.85 m² (20 feet square) and can be approached by a flight of steps.

Maṇerajuri has two hamlets, *viz*., those of Yogevaḍi and Lugadevaḍī. The chief crops grown are turmeric, groundnut, jovar and sugarcane. Plantains and mangoes are also produced and are generally sent to the Sāngli market. Practically the entire crop of sugarcane is sold to the sugar factory near Mādhavnagar. There is a small community of weavers weaving plain cloth and saris on handlooms. The village among other things has a high school, a primary school, an *āyurvedic* dispensary and a sub-centre of the veterinary dispensary. It has temples dedicated to Māruti, Viṭhobā, Mahādev and a *dargāh* of Śaikh Fardin, a Muslim *avaliya* in whose honour an *urūs* is held. A fair in honour of Yallammā *Devī* is held on *Pauṣa Vadya* 7 and is attended by over 3,000 persons.

MANGALE.

Māṅgaḷe, within 1961, 5,977 inhabitants, is a village in Śirāḷā *mahāl*, situated 8 km (five miles) south of the *mahāl* headquarters. It is drained by the river Vārnā and its tributary the Morṇa, both of which have immensely benefited the agriculture of the village. As many as 250 engines installed on the banks irrigate extensive sugarcane fields, which produce is mostly sold to the Kaḍolī sugar factory 12.87 km (eight miles) away. However many a producer crushes part of the cane to produce *guḷ*. The nearness of Kolhāpūr market has given an impetus to trade and hence brisk trade takes place in food grains and other commodities. Weekly market is held on Mondays at which cattle and food grains are mostly sold. With the changing times people have come to realise the benefits accruing from co-operation and hence are increasingly taking interest in co-operative activities. The following four societies have already been established: (i) Weavers' Co-operative, (ii) Potters' Co-operative Society, (iii) Co-operative Joint Farming Society and (iv) *Sevā Sahakarī* Society. The educational institutions of the village include two primary schools, one each for boys and girls and a

high school conducted by the Svāmī Vivekānand Āśram, Śirāḷā. There are a post office, veterinary and civil dispensaries, a radio club, a village volunteer club and a public library.

Ordinary bullock-cart tracks connect Māṅgale with all the important places in Śirāḷā *mahāl*. Besides there is bus service to and fro Kolhāpūr and Islāmpūr. Śrī Mangalnātha is the presiding deity of the village. There are also shrines dedicated to Viṭṭhal Rakhumāī, Hanumān, Ambābāī and Dattātraya. and two mosques. one of which is reported to be very old.

MHAISAL.

Mhaisāḷ, (pop. 6,039), formerly in Miraj *tālukā* but now included in the newly created Āṭapāḍī *mahāl*, is favourably situated in respect of transport and communications. It lies 20.92 km. (13 miles) north-east of Sāṅglī and 11.26 km. (seven miles) south of Miraj with which it is connected by road as well as by rail. it being a station on the Miraj-Beḷgāṅv route of the South-Central Railway. The Bijāpūr-Athnī road also cuts across the village. As it is situated on the banks of the Kṛṣṇā--1.60 km. (one mile) off the left bank—the soil around is fertile producing rich crops of sugarcane, jowar and groundnut. Lift irrigation has helped to bring large tracts of land mostly under sugarcane cultivation. the produce being practically consumed by the sugar factory near Mādhavnagar. A co-operative society advances loans and supplies manures to the agriculturists. At present drinking water is obtained from the wells, but there is a proposal to supply tap water. The grāmpancāyat looks after sanitation and has laid out some tar roads. There are a montessori, two primary schools, one each for boys and girls, a library, a post office, a gymnasium and an *āyurvedic* dispensary with a maternity ward attached to it. Mhaisāḷ has eight temples, including a Jain *bastī*, two mosques and a *dargāh*.

MIRAJ.

Miraj, lying between 16° 45′ north latitude and 74° 35′ east longitude is 9.65 km. (six miles) north of Sāṅglī, the district headquarters, and 48.28 km. (30 miles) east of Kolhāpūr. It is the headquarters of the *tālukā* of the same name as well as of the Miraj sub-division, which besides Miraj *tālukā* includes the *tālukās* of Tāsgāṅv and Jath. According to the 1961 Census it has a population of 53,345.

Miraj ground-fort figures as one of the most important of the historical relics that the district possesses and hence invites some attention. Though now it is in complete ruins except the front gate it is reminiscent of the history of the Ādil Śāhī, Moghal and Marāṭhā regimes. In the absence of written records we are in the dark as to the builder of the fort or the date of its construction*.

The town has the offices of the prant officer, māmlatdār and pancāyat samitī. There are two civil courts, one judicial magistrate's court, three branch post and telegraph offices, one sub-post office, a police station, a telephone exchange, a rest house,

* More details given under History section.

civil and veterinary dispensaries and a maternity home. Besides the health institutions maintained by government and the town municipality there are many private hospitals and dispensaries including the famous Wanless T.B. Sanatorium.

In respect of learning and education the town has very good facilities. Within the municipal limits there are three montessoris. 27 primary schools, five high schools, two training schools and one technical school. The institutions noted above include those run by Government as well as by private bodies.

Within a radius of 8 km. (five miles) taking the Wellingdon College as the centre, Sāṅglī-Miraj area has educational facilities in Arts. Science. Commerce Medicine. Engineering and Training, barring only agriculture Thus there are two Arts and Science Colleges, one Commerce College, one Engineering College and one College of Education. In collaboration with the Miraj Medical Centre Government has established a Medical College at Miraj. The town has two private libraries.

The renowned singer Abdul Karim Khān who lies interred within the compounds of the Khvaja Śamsuddin Mira Sāheb *dargah*, was from Miraj and his high traditions in classical music are carried on even to-day by his disciples. Towards the close of the 19th century Śrī Vasudev Viṣṇuśastrī Khare, also from Miraj, undertook the difficult task of probing into the historical records and published as many as 14 volumes which throw valuable light on the post Panipat period of the Marāṭhā regime. He also wrote plays in Marāṭhī which became very popular.

Miraj is a large trading town dealing chiefly in grains. There is a sub-market yard. An industrial estate is soon going to be set up. There are quite of few banks and co-operative societies offering advance finance to agriculturists for purchasing fertilisers and modern agricultural implements. The weekly bazar is held on Tuesdays and Wednesdays.

Miraj town is centrally situated in respect of the means of transport and communications. It is an important junction on the Poonā-Bangalore route of the South-Central Railway. From Miraj trains run to Paṇḍharpūr as also a shuttle service to Sāṅglī, which is only 9.65 km. (six miles) off. Besides the railway there is the city bus service between Miraj and Sāṅglī, buses plying every ten minutes to and fro. Miraj has extensive betel-leaf orchards in the surrounding villages and these leaves are sent to places like Bombay, Poonā, etc., by rail.

History.

Miraj passed on to the Śilāhāras of Kolhāpūr when that house declared independence towards the close of the tenth century. Jattiga II (C. 1000-1020 A.D.) the 4th ruler of this dynasty has been mentioned by his son Mārasiṁha (C. 1050 to 1075 A.D.) in his Miraj plates dated *Śaka* 980 or A.D. 1058[1]. He was succeed-

[1] J.R.A.S., IV, p. 281.

ed by Gonka who has been described in the same plates as the conqueror of Karahāṭā (Karhāḍ), Mairinja (Miraj) and Konkaṇ. But the Hotur inscription of 1037 A.D. records that Panhāḷā, the capital city of Śilāhāra Jattiga II was conquered by Cavanrasa, the general of Cālukya Jayasiṁha II. The Miraj plates of 1024 A.D. reveal that Jayasiṁha II issued the grant when he was in his victorious camp near Kolhāpūr. This goes to establish that Panhāḷā was captured before 1024 A.D. either at the end of Jattiga's reign or in the beginning of his son Gonka's. It seems that the Śilāhāras were allowed to retain their territory. There is no doubt that Gonka submitted to Cālukya power but the fact that he is described as the conqueror of Konkaṇ may mean that either he was appointed as the administrator or was allowed to penetrate beyond his territory. In 1216 A.D. Miraj along with other territories of Kolhāpūr Śilāhāras fell to the onslaught of the Yādavas who retained their hold up to A.D. 1318 when it passed on to the Bahamanīs. We have it on the authority of the *Tazkirat-ul-Mulk* that Hasan, the founder of the Bahamanī dynasty was in the employ of one Śaikh Muhammad Junāidī at Gangī near Miraj[1] where he found a treasure with which he raised an army, marched on Miraj and captured the fort after defeating and imprisoning one *Rāni* Durgāvati who was its *subhedār*[2]. In view of his first victory the name of the town was changed to Mubārakābād at the wishes of Śaikh Muhammad. This event took place in 748 Hijri or A.D. 1347. As to who built the fort of Miraj is not known. Some say that it was built by one of the Bahamani Sultāns: but this view is untenable as the fort was in existence even before the establishment of the Bahamanī dynasty. Bahamanī Sultāns may have only carried some repairs. The first mention of Miraj in Feriśtā occurs in the account of the revolt of Bahādur Gilānī in A.D. 1494, which was quelled by Sultān Muhammad II (1482-1518). The Sultan had received a complaint from his counterpart in Gujarāt and wanted to punish him. He invested the fort which was surrendered by its governor Bunā Nāik after some resistance. He was honourably received by the Sultān. The troops of Bahādur Gilānī were given the alternative of either joining his own or leaving the fort. It is said that nearly 2,000 cavalry left the fort and joined Bahādur Gilānī[3]. Those of whom preferred to enter Sultān's service were accepted and rewarded suitably. Whether this leniency shown towards the troops was an indication of the nobility of character of the Sultān or was the result of the growing weakness in the Sultānate following Gavāṇ's death may be best left to the imagination of the reader. Be that as it may, the importance of Miraj as a base of operations for the expeditions against South Konkaṇ and Goā was clearly envisaged by the Bahamanī kings and there are not a few references to the place being used as a camping ground for the purpose.

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[1] Dr. B. G. Kunte, *Bahamani Rajyacha Itihas*, pp. 26-27.
[2] *Ibid.*
[3] *Indian Antiquary*, Vol. XXVII, p. 313.

CHAPTER 19. Places. MIRAJ. History.

The Bahamanī empire disintegrated due to a succession of weak rulers who could not put down the turbulence of the powerful provincial governors. Thus in 1490 the governors of Ahmadnagar, Golcondā, Bijāpūr etc., declared their independence and on the fall of the Bahamanī dynasty Miraj passed into the hands of Bijāpurī Sultāns. Alī Ādil Śah was kept there under surveillance during the later years of the reign of Ibrāhim Ādil Śāh, his father, and on the death of the latter it was turned into a *point d' appui* in the operations undertaken to possess the throne. The garrison took part afterwards in the revolt of Ismāīl against Ibrāhim Ādil Śāh II[1].

At this time Śivāji was fast rising into prominence and had carved out a separate principality at the cost of the Muslīm dynasties that were gradually waning in power and losing hold over their dominions. His growing power was felt by the Moghals and the Bijāpurīs who relentlessly tried to suppress him though without any success. Within 18 day's of Afzal Khan's (*Bijāpūrī sardār*) death at Pratāpgaḍ, Panhāḷā, the capital of the western Ādil Śahī district was taken by Aṇṇāji Datto through negotiations on 28th November, 1659. Panhāḷā and the surrounding district of Kolhāpūr, Vasantgaḍ, Kheḷna, Rāṅgṇa and other minor forts quickly capitulated[2]. While yet Śivāji was camping at Kolhāpūr he sent Netājī Palkar to besiege Miraj fort. In January 1660 Śivāji arrived in person to press the siege which had continued for two to three months, when news of Siddi Johār and Fāzal Khān invading his territories urgently called him to Panhāḷgaḍ. Under these circumstances Śivajī had to give up the siege and make arrangement to meet the challenge posed by the Bijāpūri *Sardārs*. In the regnal period of Sambhājī, Marāṭhā generals Santājī Ghorpaḍe and Dhanājī Jadhav had chosen the fort of Miraj as a safe custody for their families while they were engaged in carrying on a guerilla warfare against the invading hordes of Auraṅgzeb, the Moghal Emperor. With the fall of Bijāpūr in 1687 Miraj passed into the hands of the Moghals and remained so until it was captured by Śāhū on 3rd October 1739 in a personally led campaign lasting for two years[3]. Thus the remnant of the old Moghal power almost bordering on the Marāṭhā capital was wiped once for and all[4]. It was one of the many pockets of the Moghals which threatened the Marāṭhā dominions, the others being Rayagaḍ, Gopāḷgaḍ, Govindgaḍ, etc. In 1761 the fort of Miraj with some *thāṇās* was assigned by *Peśva* Mādhavrāv to Govindrāv Paṭvardhan for the maintenance of troops. The forefathers

[1] Ferishta, III, p. 180.

[2] G. S. Sardesai, Vol I., pp. 130-131.

[3] Shahu on another previous occasion had personally undertaken a campaign against Sambhaji of Kolhapur and Udaji Chavan of Athni (early 1730) whose only principle was an uncompromising opposition to Shahu and his Peshwas. In this campaign Udaji had the daring of setting assassins on Shahu without success. Shahu lost his equanimity and crossing the Varna defeated Sambhaji and Udaji separately. Udaji Chavan later gave up the cause of Sambhaji and took service under Shahu.

[4] G. S. Sardesai, Vol. II., p. 179.

of the *Rājās* of Miraj and Sāṅglī, the Paṭvardhan *sardārs* made their names in the campaigns that the *Peśvas* led against Haider and Tipu of Mysore.

Municipality.

Constitution: Miraj municipality was established in 1875. It has an area of 42.40 km² (16.37 sq. miles) under its jurisdiction. The president, who is the administrative head is elected by the councillors from amongst themselves. There is also a vice-president.

Finance: In 1961-62 total income, excluding a sum of Rs. 1,16,064 derived from extraordinary and debt heads, amounted to Rs. 5,70,628. It comprised municipal rates and taxes Rs. 4,42,343; municipal property and powers apart from taxation Rs. 61,663; grants and contributions Rs. 65,546 and miscellaneous Rs. 1,076. During the same year expenditure incurred, excluding a sum of Rs. 1,72,258 on account of extraordinary and debt heads, amounted to Rs. 5,58,564. It comprised general administration and collection charges Rs. 1,22,691; public health and convenience Rs. 2,98,056; public safety Rs. 6,474; public instruction Rs. 59,360 and miscellaneous Rs. 71,983.

Markets: A well-built market for vegetable and fruit vendors with accommodation for a few general shops is provided by the municipality. It is known as Lakṣmī market and was built in 1932 at a total cost of Rs. 2,25,000. It has a clock-tower and a storey in which is housed the municipal office. Yet another chawl occupied entirely by general merchants is owned by the municipality and was constructed at a cost of Rs. 21,600. The meat market with the slaughter house has cost the municipality Rs. 23,500. There is also a privately managed slaughter house.

Health, Sanitation and Water-Supply: Adequate arrangements are made to inoculate and vaccinate the people in times of epidemics. Till recently the town had only surface drains and even today a part of it still continues to have such drains. But an underground drainage scheme to be completed in two stages would meet the long-felt need of the town. The first phase of this scheme has already been completed and work on the second is fast progressing. Its estimated cost is Rs. 31,47,450. The town has tap water supply. The water-works on the banks of the Kṛṣṇa were commenced in 1946 and completed in 1950 at a cost of Rs. 20,93,135. Recently a filtration plant comprising three filters with a total filtering capacity of 1,245,593 litres (2,74,000 gallons) a day was installed. The work was taken up in 1961 and completed in 1963 at a cost of Rs. 7,50,000.

Education: Primary education is compulsory and is managed by the Zillā Pariṣad. In 1961-62 municipal contribution to this end amounted to Rs. 58,000.

Fire Fighting Service: So far only two fire engines have been acquired. They are equipped with latest equipment.

CHAPTER 19. Places. MIRAJ. Municipality.

Cremation and Burial Places: Cremation and burial grounds are maintained and used by the respective communities.

Amenities: The municipality has laid out three gardens and a playground and has also maintained an open air theatre to encourage cultural and social programmes. Of the gardens the one near S.T. stand named as Jijāmātā *Udyāna* is well maintained and is a good place for recreation.

Objects *Mādhavjī Mandir.*

Mādhavjī *mandir*, a work in masonry, is located within the Miraj fort area. It is the private shrine of the *Rājā* of Miraj and was built in 1801 at a cost of nearly Rs. 80,000. The temple has a double compound wall, the outer one being much smaller in height than the inner. A lofty gateway leads into the spacious paved courtyard wherein is a small shrine dedicated to Garūḍ. Opposite to the temple there is a mansion of the *Rājā*, used by the royal family on festive occasions. Around the temple and the courtyard are planted a variety of flower plants prominent among them being several varieties of roses. The temple *maṇḍap* is approximately 13.71 × 7.62 metres (45′ × 25′) with 22 pillars, 12 of which are embedded in the side walls. Its front side has three arches, the middle one being double the size of the side ones and are draped with fine silken strings with brass balls attached to the bottoms. The image chamber is on a height of about 0.914 metres (three feet) from the *maṇḍap* level and has in the front five arches in between six pillars decorated with some striking sculptural designs. It contains on a pedestal a four handed idol of Nārāyan and that of Lakṣmī. The *gābhārā* is adorned with a *śikhar*.

Viṭṭhal Rakhumāī Temple.

Viṭṭhal Rakhumāī Temple. This is located in Brāhmaṇpurī and the original temple is said to be nearly 150 years old. In 1962 it was built a new on the remains of the old. It has only one hall in the back wall of which are fixed on a pedestal the idols of Viṭṭhal and Rakhumāī. Though small, it is a pretty, modern building. A Trust known as Pāṇḍuraṅg trust looks after its maintenance. *Āṣāḍhī Ekadaśī* and *Kārtika Ekadaśī* are celebrated.

Mārkaṇḍeśvar Mandir.

Markaṇḍeśvar *mandir* is on the Kṛṣṇā *ghāṭ* having a compound wall on three sides of it. Both in the building of the temple and the wall, black stone has been employed. While there is only one entrance to enter the courtyard, there are three openings on the *ghāṭ*. The *maṇḍap* is 7.62 × 3.65 metres (25′ × 12′) and has four pillars. On either side of the *gābhārā* entrance there are niches holding idols of Viṭṭhal, Rakhumāī and Gaṇapati, respectively. A small chamber to the left of the visitor contains an idol of Ambābāī. The *gābhārā* entrance is ornamented with floral patterns carved on blocks of stone. It contains the *liṅg* symbol and is reached after descending a few steps. The *gābhārā* is crowned with a *śikhar*. The *Kṛṣṇā ghāṭ* is very well built, broad and handsome and up to date is in a very good condition. At both the extreme ends of it there are

open dome-like structures with sitting arrangement. Opposite to the shrine at the other end of the courtyard is a *nandī* image housed in a small canopy. There is also a *tulsivṛndāvan*.

Datta Mandir.

The temple of Datta is not far away from the municipal building. It is reported to be over 60 years old and has a spacious 22 wooden pillared *maṇḍap* with an equal number embedded in the side walls. Nearly 18 pillars have been arranged in the centre to evolve a design of a parallelogram which form 19 arches. The *maṇḍap* is approximately 15.24 x 9.14 metres (50′ x 30′). The *gābhārā* is on a higher elevation and contains a single faced image of Dattatraya. On the occasion of Datta *Jayantī*, the palanquin is taken out in procession. In the month of *Bhādrapada* the celebrations last for seven days.

Gaṇapati Devālaya.

Situated in Sāṅglīkar *maḷā*, the Gaṇapati temple is an edifice of masonry encompassed by a compound wall of the same type. Though much smaller, it is built more or less after the style of the Gaṇapati temple at Sāṅglī, and was built by Śrimant Āppāsāheb who also endowed it with an *inām* grant of 32.37 hectares (80 acres) of land which it continues to hold to the present day. The entrance surmounted by a *nagarkhānā* or the music chamber, leads into the courtyard containing a fountain, no longer in a working order, and various types of flower plants. The temple stands on a 1.21 metres (four feet) high dais of stone reached by ascending a few steps. Four pillars, forming three arches, line the front side of the spacious *sabhāmaṇḍap*. The pillars bear some remarkable carvings. The vestibule is 0.929 m^2 (10 feet square) and contains an idol of Gaṇapati of polished black stone, set on a pedestal. It is crowned by a *śikhar* with designs of niches, from the bottom to the top, devoid of any figures. In the four corners are replicas of the *śikhar*. *Gaṇeś Caturthī* is the principal festival celebrated. Just behind the shrine there is a large square well holding ample water, utilised to irrigate the extensive fields around. In the environs of this temple there are four more similar wells.

Śrī Kṛṣṇeśvar Mandir.

Kṛṣṇeśvar *mandir* in Brāhmaṇpurī is reported to be nearly 150 years old. It is a masonry construction with two *sabhāmaṇḍaps* measuring 13.71 x 9.14 metres (45′ x 30′) and 4.52 x 3.04 metres (15′ x 10′) respectively, the first one containing a small but open courtyard. In the centre of the *maṇḍap* there is a *nandī* image. The image chamber containing the *liṅg* is 0.929 m^2 (10 ft. square) and is on a slightly higher level from that of the *maṇḍap*. While the lintel bears a carved image of Gaṇapati, the door frame is decorated with small lamps. Architecturally the temple is insignificant.

Śrī Jyotirliṅg Temple.

Śrī Jyotirliṅg temple situated in Korṇe *galli* is reported to be very old. It consists of a six pillared spacious *maṇḍap* with galleries above and a very narrow *gābhārā*. A *nandī* image

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occupies central position in the *maṇḍap*. The *gābhārā* is on a slightly elevated level and its door frame is decorated all over by delicate and attractive carvings. Its front side is studded with coloured marble tiles bearing various types of designs and patterns. Crowned with a medium sized *śikhar*, the *gābhārā* contains four-handed idol of Jyotirliṅg and not a *liṅg* symbol as the name goes to suggest. It is in a standing posture with one of its elbows resting on a hooded cobra. While the right hands hold a tabor and a sword the left are holding a *triśula* and a *kamaṇḍalu* respectively. On the sides there are two images of horses. In honour of the god a large fair is held on *Caitra Paurṇimā*.

Mallikārjun Temple

The temple of Mallikārjuna belonging to the Liṅgāyats is situated in Somvār *peṭh*. It is reported to be very antique as could be judged from the massivity of its architecture and the style of its construction. The *maṇḍap* containing a *nandī* image in the traditional pose is nearly 3.25 m^2 (35 feet square) and has over 28 solid pillars forming a series of arches in between. In the front there are four pillars each formed of a combination of three pillars. Upon all the pillars some simple carvings could be seen. Just near the image chamber, to the left of the visitor, can be seen an idol of Gajanan housed in a specially prepared wooden frame The base on which it is set is studded with marble tiles with various flower patterns and other designs. In a similar frame to the right is an image of a *Devī*. The image chamber is on a higher level and has four pillars which form three arches in the front. On the *gābhārā* lintel is fixed a brass image of Gaṇapati with a small *liṅg* on the right and a *nandi* on the left. The *gābhārā* is 1.11 m^2 (12 ft. square) with its door frame plated with brass. In the centre is a marble *liṅg* with well painted images of Śaṅkar and Pārvatī cut out of cardboard forming the background. A hooded cobra cast out of brass is shown to be sheltering the *liṅg*. Outside the temple there is a 5.48 metres (eighteen feet) high lamp-pillar. Both the temple as well as the lamp-pillar are of masonry. *Vaiśākha Pañcamī* and Basava *Jayanti* are the two occasions when celebrations take place.

Bārā Imām Dargāh.

Bara Imam *Dargāh* is also located in Somvār *peṭh* and is said to date back from the times of the Moghals. There is a compound wall around entered by a lofty gate surmounted by three minars. Inside the courtyard there are pavilions. The *dargāh* building is not very big and contains some weapons called *nulli*. The top is decorated with four minārs in the four corners and eight smaller ones in between. In the month of June an *urūs* is held. A mutual meeting between the processions of Bārā Imām and Mira Saheb *dargāh* takes place in the month of *Muharram*.

Khvājā Śamsuddin Mirā Sāheb Dargāh.

The *dargāh* of Śamsuddin Mirā Sāheb is well-known in Miraj and has a compound wall around enclosing within it an extensive open ground which was once used as a burial place. Besides the huge main entrance there are many more smaller gates which are

generally kept closed. The main entrance is right in front of the *dargāh* giving a complete view of the *dargāh* from its threshold. In the front side there are eight pillars forming nine arches. The actual entrance door is about 3.04 x 1.21 metres (10' x 4') and is plated with brass sheets ornamented with some fine floral and creeper designs. On either side of the gate there are extensions let on hire to the shopkeepers. These and some other buildings belonging to the *dargāh* fetch an annual income of nearly Rs. 15,000. Immediately inside the entrance the passage is flanked by two raised platforms. The *dargāh* stands on a raised plinth with eight minars which are illuminated with lamps on the occasion of the *urūs*. The inner is approximately 5.48 x 4.87 metres (18' x 6') and contains the tomb of Khvājā Śamsuddin Mira Sāheb and that of his son lying side by side. The tombs are draped with precious silk. Besides the main entrance which is also similarly plated there are two side doors. A huge vaulted dome crowns the top and is decorated with four minars, one in each corner.

Śamsuddin, who lived to be a great Muslim saint, was born in Kaśgar in 1333 and right from childhood had a religious bent of mind. While yet a boy he mastered the *Qurān* and other Muslim religious scriptures and undertook a pilgrimage to Mecca, not minding the hazards and dangers involved. But his sojourn at Meccā proved to be very brief, for he was instructed by Allah in a vision to go to Murtajābād, identified with modern Miraj, posthaste to free the people from the clutches of Gangnā Dhobi, a magician who harassed the people and molested the women Now Gangnā Dhobī was a powerful, wicked magician who worshipped a demi-goddess, to please whom he sacrificed human beings at her altar. He had married a woman who was also a witch. After coming over to Miraj, Śamsuddin sent for the magician who at first refused, but yielding finally pleaded that he may be allowed to do some service to him. It is told that Śamsuddin gave him his handkerchief to wash which the magician, forgetting his vow, threw in the Kṛṣṇā. But to his surprise the handkerchief burned, out of which a cobra appeared and struck him down by its fatal sting. He was given a cremation on the same spot. On learning of the death of her husband his witch-wife who was in Bengal at that time, approached Śamsuddin and begged for the life of her husband. Mirā Sāheb told her that he had died of his own evil actions and that if brought to life by magic charms he would appear in the form of a demon and except Allah no one can give him the original shape. In spite of this, she went to that spot and collecting the remains brought him back to life by means of witchcraft. Mirā Sāheb's words proved prophetic and the demon-magician slowly began to advance towards her. She then fled and fell upon Śamsuddin's feet and prayed for mercy. Śamsuddin took pity upon her and sealed the demon in a well. She further requested Śamsuddin to allow her to stay near him and on one of the steps leading to the *dargāh* a tomb-stone is pointed out as being the one of the wife of the Dhobī. No one knows the truth or falsehood of this strange story.

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Khvājā Śamsuddin Mirā Sāheb died at Miraj in 1384. The structure housing him and his son was built during his lifetime in 1355. On his death he was laid to eternal rest in the place of his own choice. It was built by the money (4½ lakhs of rupees) donated by the *Sultāns* of the Bahamanī dynasty and the wealth found while laying the foundations. It is believed that if persons possessed by ghosts and evil-spirits stay for a few days at the back side and offer prayers they are relieved of the torture. In the backyard there is also a small mosque dating from the same period.

An *urūs* attended by thousands is held on 24th *Rajab.* The honour of laying the first wreath on the tomb on the day of the *urūs* goes to a *Cāmbhār* (shoe-maker). It is said that one day while Mirā Sāheb was on his usual rounds he approached a shoe-maker to get his shoe mended. The shoe-maker had no ready leather but offered to mend it with his own skin. He was so much touched at his gesture that he declared then and there, "the honour of strewing my grave with flowers first will go to the *Cāmbhār.*" Since then the practise has continued.

Dargāh of Abdul Karim Khān.

In the same compound amidst many other graves lies interred, Abdul Karim Khān, one of the greatest singers of India. He immortalized himself in the founding of the Kirāṇā School of Music and is primarily responsible in lending a helping hand and encouraging the manufacture of musical instruments at Miraj, for which it is so well-known. Upon him was conferred the title of *Sangitratna* in the Mysore *Darbār* The circumstances under which he died are very interesting and are worthy to be noted here. Once while travelling to Pondicherry to give a performance he suddenly got down at the break of dawn, on the Kṛṣṇā station (lying between Wādi and Raicur) and began to play upon his *tamborā*, as if in response to a divine call. Abruptly the music stopped and it was found that the strings of the *tamborā* had snapped and simultaneously the flame of life in him also extinguished. It was the most fitting death to a great lover of music such as Abdul Karim Khan was. His dead body was brought and laid to eternal rest on 27th *Rajab* 1937 where it lies today. On 26th *Rajab* a programme is arranged in which well-known singers and musicians participate.

Jāme Masjid.

The Jāme *masjid* in the Brāhmaṇpurī part is reported to have been built in 1620 A.D. by one Ankus Khān, *subhedar* of Baṅkāpūr. It is encompassed by a compound wall with a 8′ × 4′ entrance. In front there is a spacious courtyard and the prayer hall is 45′ × 25′ with twelve pillars including those embedded in the side wall. The top corners are crowned by minars, one in each corner. There is yet another mosque known as *Khāṭik* mosque.

Bālājī Temple.

Situated along the Paṭel road, the Bālājī temple has a 22 pillared *sabhāmaṇḍap* with galleries above. The pillars are of wood with stone basis. Coloured lamps are hung from the ceiling and in the

centre is a chandelier, lighted only on festival occasions. On either side of the *gābhārā* there are niches, one of which contains an image of Gaṇapati. The *gābhārā* is 1.11 m² (12 ft. square) and contains idols of Rādhā and Kṛṣṇā on a pedestal. *Rāmanavamī* and *Gokulāṣṭamī* are celebrated.

NARSINGPUR.

Narsiṅgpūr, with 1,638 inhabitants, is a small village in Vāvā *tālukā*, lying 11.26 km. (seven miles) to the north of Uraṇ-Islāmpūr and 8 km. (fice miles) from Śeṇoḷī, a railway station on the Poonā-Miraj route of the South-Central Railway. It is situated on the left bank of the Kṛṣṇā with Bahe on the right 3.21 km. (two miles) down stream where a bridge has been built across the river. Heretofore only small boats carried the passengers which involved danger in the monsoons. The Kṛṣṇā is indeed a boon to the village for not only does it provide drinking water but also has helped to bring large tracts of land under irrigation. A *ghāṭ* has been built on the river bank. The village has a middle school, a post office and a multipurpose co-operative society for the villages of Narsiṅgpūr and Koḷe which is nearby. Due to its nearness to the Kṛṣṇā river and the Sahyādris on one of whose spurs is Machindragaḍ, it enjoys a congenial climate.

Narasiṁha Temple.

However, the village is noted for a remarkable double cellared temple of Narasiṁha from which perhaps it derives its name. It is right on the river bank and has for its protection a five bastioned masonry embankment along the course of the river. In order to minimise the force of the swirling waters directly beating against the embankment a solid open bastion has been erected a furlong upstream.

The superstructure has entrances on the western, eastern and northern sides, the last of which is surmounted by a drum chamber, now in a decayed condition. Near the western gate is a narrow dark flight of steps leading down in the first cellar, which is a sort of a four pillared *maṇḍap* measuring 8.53 × 8.53 × 6.09 metres (28′ × 28′ × 20′). On the very first step of this stairway are inscribed the names of three generations. This cellar has two *jharokās* on the eastern and western sides and by virtue of its holding an idol of Jagadambā is called the Ambābāī *maṇḍap*. In the opposite wall is the passage leading down into the second cellar near which there is a small *sahāṇe* (सहाणे). Here in a niche is a disfigured image of a deity, past identificaton. The second cellar is 3.04 × 3.04 × 3.65 metres (10′ × 10′ × 12′) wherein is a sixteen handed idol of Narasiṁha (man-lion incarnation of Viṣṇū) carved out of a single block of stone. The image is well carved and executed, in that even the claws penetrating the belly of Hiraṇya Kaśipu have been skilfully sculptured. Around the *prabhāval*, the *Daśāvatārs* are carved in relief. Near the right foot of the idol are carved images of Bhū Devī and Garūḍ while near the left those of Pralhād and Lakṣmī. The *gābhārā* has a ventilator opening right above the head of the idol and another on the wall facing it. Above, on the surface, there are two *tulsivṛndāvans* one of which is right on the head of the idol below and

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the other which is hollow is connected with the ventilator opening on the wall. In such an ingeneous way this second one has been arranged that a betel-nut, dropped from it, emerging out of the ventilator, bounces on the feet of the idol. This arrangement calls for tributes to the engineering skill of the artisan.

An annual festival is celebrated commencing from *Vaiśākha Śuddha* 7 and lasting for 10 days. On the last day the *utsava-murti* and *pādukās* are taken in a procession to a spot on the river called Narasiṁha *tirtha* and after giving a bath they are taken round the village and back to the temple.

It is said and testified to by the *Kṛṣṇā Mahatmya* and *Sdmudreśvar Māhātmya* that this idol was taken from the river bed. These holy books have some interesting stories to tell as to how and by whom the idol was taken out. The *Kṛṣṇā Mahātmya,* in its 37th chapter, tells us through the mouth of Sage Vyās as relating to Sage Yajñavalkya that Parāśara *Ṛṣi*, his father, engaged himself in devout austerities on the Kṛṣṇā river bank. Being pleased with his austerities Śaṅkar appeared before him and expressed his desire to grant him a boon. Parāśara *Ṛṣi* in all humility expressed his desire to accept the boon from the Narasiṁha incarnation of the Lord. Upon this, Śaṅkar in accordance with the wish of His devotee appeared in the Narasiṁha incarnation. Parāśara, on keeping the idol in front of him, began to perform religious rites with all devotion and at the end of it, it was imersed in the river at the behest of the God Himself. This spot came to be known as *Jvala Narasiṁha Tirtha* as fire flames were leaping out of the crown of the idol.

In about *Śaka* 100, corresponding to 178 A.D., one *Rājā* Bhīm is supposed to have taken the idol out of the river. This view has been substantiated by *Kṛṣṇā Māhātmya,* which in its 45th chapter states that in the kingdom of Karṇāṭak, in the village Anjan there lived a *Brāhmaṇ* couple who had been cursed with deafness and blindness by a *ṛṣi* for certain of their acts. To expiate from the curse they came to *Jvālā Narasiṁha Tirtha* in the village called *Kauṇḍinyapūr* which has been identified with modern Narsingpūr and engrossed themselves in religious mortification. This they did for full twelve years at the end of which period, God, having been pleased with their penance, appeared to them in a dream and told them to go to *Rājā* Bhīm who was then ruling at Kuṇḍal, and ask him to take Him out of the river. So saying the God vanished and surprisingly the couple was also cured of their disabilities. On narrating the dream to the *Rājā*, no time was lost in taking the idols out of the river bed. Now *Samudreśvar Māhātmya* mentions a king of Kuṇḍal or Kuṇḍinpūr by name Satyeśvar who established the temple of Sāgareśvar about 9.65 km (six miles) from Narsiṅgpūr and who died on *Caitra Śuddha* 5, *Śaka* 310. It also gives a list of seven of his predecessors, who are also supposed to have reigned in that country. Bhīṣmaka has been named as the first of the predecessors and it is quite likely that Bhīm is the

NARSINGPUR. Narasimha Temple.

corrupt form of Bhīṣmakā.* It has been asserted that Satyeśvar was a Yādava king and later in about 1187, one of the princes of this dynasty by name Bhillama established an independent kingdom at Devagirī, the modern Daulatābād. To his lineage belongs Rāmdevrāya who, it is said, ordered his minister Hemādri or Hemāḍpant to build a suitable shrine for the idol. The present temple might have been the result of that order and constructed in such a way as to preserve it from Musalmān onslaughts which had just then started. It might have been built in about 1273 which corresponds with the regnal period of Rāmdevrāya. But definite evidence to substantiate this view is lacking and in its absence the name of the builder should remain in obscurity. The superstructure above does not bear any resemblance to *Hemāḍpantī* style.

PALASI.

Palaśī, with a population of 1,301 according to the Census of 1961, is a small village in Khānāpūr *tālukā*, 32.18 km (21 miles) east of Viṭe and 11.26 km (seven miles) south-east of Khānāpūr. It is to the north of the Cipḷuṇ-Karhāḍ-Bijapūr road, and has to the extreme east a curious fort called Kuḷdurg about 44.21 hectares (one hundred and ten acres) in area. The fort lies on a plateau between two streams descending down a steep rocky hill into the Māṇ valley which lies about 213.36 metres (700 ft.) below. There are the remains of a wall and some bastions on the south-west side. All other sides have no defence except the great natural steepness of the hill side. Inside the fort are to be seen the plinths of several old buildings and they are, including the fort, said to be of great antiquity. The fort is said to have been built by a Koḷī *Rājā* who endeavoured to lead an insurrection against the Bhoj *Rājā* of Panhāḷā. In 1827 Captain Clunes notices Paḷaśī as a small village on the Vārṇa with twenty-five houses. There are a primary school and a library.

PALUS.

Paḷūs is a village of 10,629 inhabitants in Tāsgāṇv *tālukā*, on the Karhāḍ-Tāsgāṅv road about 16.09 km (ten miles) north-west of Tāsgāṅv. Large tracts of its land have come under the Kṛṣṇā canal irrigation scheme. The land is extremely fertile and sugarcane and cotton are grown in abundance. The family of the famous musician Viṣṇu Digambar Paḷuskar hailed from this village. Besides a primary school, the village has a high school and an industrial training school. There are a post office, a health centre, a family planning centre and a veterinary dispensary. It is one of the centres in Tāsgāṅv *tālukā*, providing breeding bulls to the villages. A workshop run on co-operative basis and manufacturing spare parts for oil engines, etc., has recently been set up. It also manufactures pumps. There is a temple dedicated to a saint by name Dhoṇḍibā, who was supposed to possess supernatural powers and who could foretell any coming disaster. His prophesies used to come true. On *Kārtika Vadya Ekādaśī* a fair in honour of this saint is held.

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*But the story has no historical basis.

CHAPTER 19.

Places.

PED.

Peḍ (pop. 6,127) is largely an agricultural village in Tāsgāṅv *tālukā* lying 20.92 km (13 miles) north-east of the *tālukā* headquarters. *Bājrī,* jowar and groundnut are the chief crops grown. It was said to have been granted by Chatrapati Śivājī to one Cāfāji Śeṇḍage, a *sardār* in his service, for personal maintenance (1656). One Nāthājī Śeṇḍage belonging to the Śeṅḍage fraternity is said to have held a high rank under the *Peśvās,* and it was he who built three *vāḍās* whose ruins the village contains to the present day. The *vāḍas* are to the south, north and the centre of the village, respectively. None of these are in good repair and the wells inside have gone dry. In the environs of the *vāḍā* to the north a small settlement has sprung up. To water the elephants Nāthājī had sunk a large well and constructed a trough along Tasgaṅv-Khānāpūr road and though the well is now filled with earth, the trough is in tact with the figures of sun and the crescent carved in relief against the outside. To the north of this along the road leading to the village is a temple of Śidobā also said to have been built by Nāthājī Śendage. A part of the roof has given way and the shrine is extremely in bad repair.

PETH.

Peṭh, 17° 3′ north latitude and 74° 17′ east longitude, with 8,613 inhabitants in 1961 is a village in Vaḷva *taluka* about 4.82 km (3 miles) west of Islāmpūr and 72.42 km (45 miles) south-east of Satara. It is situated at the junction of the Poona-Bangalore and the Saṅglī-Peṭh road. As its very name suggests it is one of the local trade centres. Its chief products are tobacco, betel-leaves, chilli and sugarcane. However, much of its importance has declined in recent years owing to the shifting of the sub-divisional headquarters from Peṭh to Islāmpūr. The chief traders are Gujars who deal chiefly in raw sugar which they buy from the local cultivators and then send to places like Ciplun and Ratnagiri. There are three primary schools, a high school and five co-operative societies. There are the usual dispensaries and a post office also. There are temples dedicated to Khaṇḍoba and Maṇkeśvara. A yearly fair in honour of Khaṇḍobā is held in the month of *Phalgun.* It lasts for three days. It is attended by over 10,000 persons. The fair is chiefly noteworthy in the eyes of the people for the yearly occurrence of a miracle, when an aged Maṅg breaks an iron chain when the spirit of the deity is supposed to enter his body after much loud supplication. A fair in honour of Māṇkobā is also held.

PRACHITGAD.

Pracitgaḍ in Śirāḷā *mahāl* about 64.37 km (forty miles) north-west of Peṭh, is a hill-fort projecting westwards from the edge of the main range of the Sahyādris with the Koṅkaṇ on three of its sides and joined to the Deccan on the fourth side by a narrow strip. The fort is in a very inaccessible situation at the junction of the village of Rundhiv in Sātārā with Nairī and Śṛngārpūr in the Ratnagiri district. The paths to the fort pass over the crest of the Sahyādris through thick forest or over sheet rock and unite at a point about 1.60 km (a mile) from the fort. It is about 6.43 km (four miles) either from Rundhiv of Jāvḷī, the nearest villages. Jāvlī is 6.43 km (four miles) from Peṭh Loṇd

the favourite halting place on the east side of the south Tivrā pass which there joins the Vārṇā valley track. The path to Jāvḷī runs north-east from Peṭh Loṇḍ and seems to have been the one most used in former days. Rundhiv is 6.43 km (four miles) south-east of Māla, the village at the top of the Māla pass. From the junction of the two paths it is about 1.60 km (a mile) to the edge of the Sahyādris and from here a winding path leads on to a small neck or gorge about 27.43 metres (thirty yards) long and about 60.96 metres (200 ft.) below, crossing which the gate is reached. A narrow ledge runs at the level of the gate right round the fort and at the western end communicates with a steep path leading down to Konkaṇ. Above this ledge is a scarp varying in height from 9.14 to 18.28 metres (30 to 60 feet) and crowned with towers on the east and west and a wall all round loopholed for musketry. The wall is in parts composed of enormous boulders unmortared, in others of smaller stones to which mortar has been applied. On the west is a sort of prominence fortified by a tower capable of mounting several guns. The top is undulating and in area not more than 1.21 to 1.61 hectares (three or four acres) at the outside, the extreme length being not more than 182.89 metres (two hundred yards) and the breadth not more than 91.44 metres (one hundred yards). Under the scarp on the south side are some cave ponds filled with excellent water. On the top on the west is a large pond and one or two smaller ones with a less certain supply. There are ruins of buildings all over the fort. The headquarters apparently were near the centre on the east side. There is nothing to show what the other buildings were. Who built Pracitgad is not known, but the nature of some of its masonry points to a considerable age, perhaps anterior to the Musalmān rule. In 1862 Pracitgaḍ is mentioned as a dismantled and dilapidated fort with ample water. It was said to have contained a garrison of 300 men but was then deserted and not garrisoned.

Pracitgaḍ was never the scene of any notable event until 1817 when it was seized by a Gosavī named Citursing, who gave himself out to be the younger brother of Śāhū, the Sātārā Rājā. The real Citursing was, by his gallantry an object of much interest at the time, and being considered dangerously hostile to the *Peśva*, Trimbakjī Ḍeṅgle seduced him to a conference and imprisoned him in the fort of Kāṅgorī in Kolābā where he eventually died. The pretended Citursing, however, gave out that he had escaped to Pracitgaḍ. He got possession of the fort by a daring enterprise suggested by a traditionary account of Śivājī's exploits. From before the time of Śivājī it was usual for villagers to supply leaves and grass for thatching the fort houses. The insurgents having corrupted one or two persons in the garrison a party of them each loaded with a bundle of grass, with his arms concealed in it, appeared at the fort gate in the dress of villagers to deposit, as they pretended, the annual supply. Admittance being thus gained they surprised the

CHAPTER 19. Places. PRACHITGAD.

garrison and possessed themselves of the fort[1]. From Pracitgad as his headquarters, the pretender Citursing plundered the surrounding country until the fort was taken by Colonel Cunningham on the 10th of June 1818. He encamped as near as the forest would permit and shortly afterwards occupied a high hill which immediately commanded the place. The commandant was sent to Citursing with a demand for surrender but without effect. Captain Spiller was admitted under a flag of truce and did all he could to induce the garrison to surrender. They promised to do so. But Colonel Cunningham, not relying on their promises, sent back during the night for one of the guns which had been brought the previous day to the top of the adjoining south Tivra pass. By the exertions of the detachment and assistance sent from Sātārā the gun was mounted by two in the morning. The commandant was warned of the consequences if the fort was not immediately surrendered. No satisfactory answer was received and the shelling began. The first two shells caused considerable alarm, but the cover was so good that the garrison could not be reached and finding this out they defied the British force. Captain Spiller then proposed to blow up the gate with musketry and Assistant Surgeon Redford volunteered to accompany him. Fifty men of the 6th Regiment and a party of the auxiliary force were then formed and advanced to the gateway on the opposite side of the tower. A heavy fire prevented the besieged from suspecting what was going on at the gate. A hole was blown through the gate sufficient to admit Captain Spiller, but a grenadier stuck owing to his cartridge box. Captain Spiller returned and enlarged the hole enough to get every one through. Colonel Cunningham and Surgeon Redford had by this time joined the party. They all got through one by one and concealed themselves in the gateway till the whole party had entered. They then rushed upon the garrison who were completely surprised and fled panic-stricken in all directions. The fort was taken without the loss of a man. The enemy had five men killed and the fort *subhedār* wounded, and Citursing and family were taken prisoners[2].

RENAVI.

Reṇāvī, about 8 km (five miles) east of Viṭe, with 1,901 inhabitants as per the 1961 Census, is a village in Khānāpūr *tālukā* situated to the east on the Khānāpūr plateau. There is a primary school teaching up to seventh standard, a branch post-office, a multipurpose co-operative society and a *vasatigṛha*. Among the crops taken, jowar, bajra, *uḍid* and groundnut figure prominently.

Revan Siddh Temple.

Reṇāvī is celebrated for an old temple dedicated to Revaṇ Siddh, a local saint of repute, said to have been under the special favour of Dattātraya and a great favourite of the Lingāyats. It was built in the 16th century and lies hardly

[1] Compare Grant Duff's *Marathas*, 63 note, 632; *Pendhari and Maratha War Papers*.

[2] *Pendhari and Maratha War Papers*, 366, Bombay Courier, 20th June 1818, Grant Duff's *Marathas*, 618.

CHAPTER 19. Places. RENAVI. Revaṇ Siddh Temple.

three furlongs away from the village. The temple consists of an image-chamber and a *maṇḍap* all walled in but without a spire, the whole being about 9.29 m² (100 ft. square). The *maṇḍap* with six open pillars, is 0.14 × 12.19 metres (30′ × 40′) and has at the entrance an image of *nandī* housed in a canopy. The image-chamber containing the image of Revaṇ Siddh is 4.57 × 4.57 metres (15′ × 15′). It is in a standing posture and made of cloth stuffed with cotton. It wears a facial plaque of brass and its hands and feet are clothed in solver sheets. Nearby there is a stone-slab about 3.04 × 1.21 metres (10′ × 4′) from below which water trickles. This water is used as *tīrth* and hence the stone is considered to be holy. Within the compound there is one *dīpmāḷ* and two more outside. The cloisters that are seen near the temple are supposed to have been built by the devotees of the saint. The temple is a conspicuous object on the south side of the Ciplun-Karhāḍ-Bijāpūr road as soon as the plateau is reached. To the east of this sacred shrine is Urul Siddh and to the west in a tunnel is Viśvarādya. The story runs that the Revaṇ mountain was formerly composed of five metals. White crystals are found in abundance on the mountain and these are used as *bhasma* by the devotees. Besides, soils of various colours are also found. As many as 84 *tīrthas* or holy centres were believed to have been situated on this sacred mount but all except six have disappeared. Those now in existence are a *gomukh*, two *haumāyake* and three flower gardens. Among other miracles with which the saint is credited, it is said of him that while staying at the house of a Brāhmaṇ in Viṭe who had lost all his seven children, he commanded the Brahmaṇ's wife to cut the last child into seven pieces from which he created seven new children. He is said to have attained immortality and is still believed to hover round the place. A yearly fair is held in February which attracts thousands of devotees from places like Bārśī, Solāpūr and Karṇāṭak. A majority of the disciples of this saint are spread over Mahārāṣṭra and Karṇāṭak.

SANGLI.

Sāṅglī, (pop. 78,338) the headquarters of the district of the same name lies on the left bank of the Kṛṣṇā about 4 km (2½ miles) north-east of its confluence with the Vārṇā. It is 48.28 km (30 miles) east of Kolhāpūr and 9.65 km (six miles) north-west of Miraj with both of which it is connected by rail as well as by road. The latter town is an important junction on the Pooṇā-Bangalore route of the South Central Railway giving access to important cities and towns like Pooṇā, Bombay, Kolhāpūr, Belgāṅv, Bijāpūr, Bangalore and Solāpūr via Paṇḍharpūr. A section of the same railway also connects Miraj with Kurḍuvāḍī and Lātur. Convenient travel by buses from Sāṅglī to Kolhāpūr, Belgāṅv, Bijāpūr and Pooṇā is also possible. The favourable situation of Sāṅglī in respect of transport and communications is responsible for its commercial prosperity to a very large degree.

The town which occupies 28.48 km² (11 sq. miles) of area consists of the old town and the new town. The old town lies

on a slight eminence immediately on the river bank. Its streets, though narrow and crooked, have nearly all been put into good order with kerb stones and properly constructed gutters. The new town also lies on the river bank and was founded at the beginning of the 19th century when the late Chief Cintāmaṇrāv established himself at Sāṅglī. It consists of the Peṭh Bhāg, Vakhār Bhāg, Śivājī Nagar, Extension Area etc., extending right up to Viśrām Bāg. The Chiefs of Sāṅgli, have contributed much in the making of modern Sāṅglī, its prosperity and the well-being of its people. This part of the town is well laid out with straight, broad and handsome roads, clean and sanitary living conditions, modern buildings and lovely parks and gardens. The Śivāji Nagar and the Extension Area is for the most part occupied by well-to-do people possessing roomy and agreeable bungalows. The Peth and Vakhār Bhāgs are residential-*cum*-commercial and business areas of the town. The quarry east of the town is mainly occupied by labourers. Sāṅglīvāḍi on the western side, hitherto an independent revenue area, has since been merged in Sāṅglī town and comes within the fold of the Sāṅglī municipality. It consists mainly of farm lands.

While there was no tap water-supply, the bulk of the people used river water and to facilitate the fetching of water five flights of steps or *ghats* were erected by Āppasaheb (1801-1851). Beginning from the Chief's residence, which is now used by the family *Divan* (the royal family now residing in Maḷ Bungalow on the Madhavnagar road) the *ghaṭs* in order are, the *Māicā ghāṭ*, *Sāṅglīvāḍī*, the *Kṛṣṇa* the *Viṣṇū* and the *Śūdrācā ghāṭ*. They are in excellent repair

Sāṅglī is a very big trading centre and is considered to be the second largest market in agricultural produce in Mahārāṣṭra State and ranks next only to Bombay. It has an Agricultural Market-produce Committee. The forward market in turmeric and oil-seeds at Sāṅglī is counted as one of the important markets of its kind in India. Beside , there is a flourishing trade in tobacco. A Co-operative Sugar Factory has recently been established. There are three spinning and three weaving mills and 20 powerloom units. There are also various engineering and small-scale industries and recently a co-operative industrial estate has been established where 25 small-scale industries have actively started production. By virtue of its being a large commercial centre branches of almost all the major banks have been established here.

The offices of the Collector, Zilla Pariṣad, District and Judicial Magistrates' Courts, District Superintendent of Police, Public Health, Buildings and Communications, and Sanitary Sub-Division may be noted as the most important. The town has also post and telegraph and telephone exchange facilities.

Besides private clinics and hospitals the town has a civil hospital conducted by Government, 3 allopathic and one *āyurvedic* dispensaries and a maternity home of the municipality and a veterinary dispensary maintained by the Zillā Pariṣad.

Sāṅglī is a beautiful metropolis vibrating with activities, educational and cultural no less than commercial. The holy Kṛṣṇā river with its *ghāṭs* and temples gives it a religious background. As far as education and learning are concerned Sāṅglī-Miraj areas have excellent facilities. Within the municipal limits alone there are 41 primary schools, besides Montessoris including one conducted by the municipality,' 11 high schools, two technical schools, one B.T. college, two S.T.C. colleges and a college with the faculties of Arts and Science. Besides there are the Wellingdon College of Arts and Science, Cintāmaṇrāv Paṭvardhan College of Commerce, Vālcand College of Engineering, and the Medical College at Miraj established in collaboration with Miraj Medical Centre by Government. Among the libraries, the *Sāṅglī Nagar Vācanālaya* deserves a mention.

Among the means of recreation could be mentioned the following clubs and theatres: Rotary and Lions Clubs and the local clubs like Gymkhana and *Mahilā Pariṣad*. To the right of the road running towards Miraj, just near the rest house, an extensive ground for the erection of a stadium has been set aside. The town has six cine-theatres and three *Nāṭya Mandirs*, of which two are owned by the municipality. Sāṅglī has the credit of being the birth place of the Marāṭhī drama. It was *Sītā-Svayaṁvara* (1843) written by Viṣṇudās Bhāve who enjoyed the patronage of the Chief of Sāṅglī, the late Sir Cintamaṇrāv Āppāsāheb Paṭvardhan. The veteran Marāṭhī dramatists Govind Ballāḷ Deval and Kṛṣṇājī Prabhākar Khāḍilkar hailed from this place.

Municipality.

Constitution.—The municipality at Sāṅglī was constituted in 1876 and has an area of 28.54 km² (11.02 sq. miles) under its jurisdiction. The president, elected by the councillors from among themselves, is the administrative head. He carries on the administration with the assistance of the necessary officers and the other staff.

Finance.—In 1962-63 municipal income amounted to Rs. 23.94,233. However, this sum excludes Rs. 22,62,483, as being the income under extra-ordinary and debt heads. The income comprised revenue derived from municipal rates and taxes Rs. 20,06,003 ; realisation under special acts Rs. 8,797 ; municipal property and powers apart from taxation Rs. 85,513, grants and contributions Rs. 1,54,891 and miscellaneous Rs. 1,39,029. Expenditure during the same year amounted to Rs. 37,68,163. This also excludes a sum of Rs. 9.09,053 incurred on extra ordinary and debt heads. Expenditure comprised general administration and collection charges Rs. 8,43,925 ; public safety Rs. 65,646 ; public health and convenience Rs. 23,58,948 ; public instruction Rs. 4,16,422 ; contributions Rs. 24,693 ; miscellaneous Rs. 35.766 and loans Rs. 23,063.

Markets and Buildings.—Two vegetable and fruit markets are constructed by the municipality. The one in the Peṭh Bhāg is in the heart of the town and has good stalls ; the other named

as Chatrapati Śivājī *Maṇḍaī* is near the bus stand and was constructed in 1958 at a cost of Rs. 88,000. It has 48 vegetable and fruit stalls each measuring 0.929 m² (10 ft. square). The maternity home building has cost Rs. 55,000 and was constructed in 1961. In the same year the new municipal building was constructed at a cost of Rs. 1,80,000. It has a small clock-tower.

Health, sanitation and water-supply.—Besides the maternity home, the municipality maintains two allopathic and two *ayurvedic* dispensaries. Family planning centres are attached to two of these dispensaries. A civil hospital and a veterinary dispensary are conducted by Government.

As yet, the town has no underground drainage system. Some parts have flush type latrines attached to underground sceptic tanks. The drains and gutters are of cement concrete. The sullage water is let in the main open gutter and then allowed to flow in its natural gradient. A part of it is allowed to flow alongside the Kṛṣṇā river. The scheme of underground drainage is already under preparation of the Public Health Department of Government.

Sāṅglī town has the most modern system of water-supply employing scientific methods of purification. There are two water-works constructed side by side on the Kṛṣṇā bank near Rama *Tekaḍī Mandir*. The old water-works was installed in 1910 and was designed to supply 31,82,172 litres (6 lakh gallons) of water per day. But with the increase in population it was unable to cope up with the corresponding increase in demand. Hence a new water-works was taken up in 1956 and completed in 1958. It has cost eight lakhs of rupees and is designed to supply 1,81,83,840 litres (40 lakh gallons) of water per day. The entire distributary system was also overhauled at a cost of Rs. 18 lakhs

Education.—Primary education is compulsory and is managed by the Zilla Pariṣad. Towards this end the municipal contribution amounted to Rs. 1,50,639 in 1961-62.

Fire-fighting Service.—Three fire fighters fitted with all the necessary equipment are maintained by the municipality.

Cremation and Burial Places.—Cremation and burial places are under municipal control. Separate grounds have been set aside for different communities.

Objects. *Gaṇeśdurg Fort.*

Of the objects of interest the Gaṇeśdurg fort is of historical importance. It is an octagonal building with round bastions at each external angle. It was surrounded by a broad moat which for the most part is filled up by refuse. The walls which are about 4.57 metres (15 ft.) thick and 5.18 metres (17 ft.) high are built of stone and mortar with a parapet, now destroyed, of burnt brick and lime. Formerly, there was a low loopholed wall of stone and mud, known as the *revni* round the fort; but it has now disappeared, the stones having been used for public buildings. The fort had only one entrance on the north. Now

there are two more entrances on the southern and the eastern sides, respectively. The first gateway is on the counter scarp between the circular loopholed bastions about 6.40 metres (21 ft.) high. On the edge of the scarp there is another and much stronger gate flanked on either side by two large circular bastions loopholed for musketry and opposite the gate is a large bastion commanding the entrance which here turns to the left. On either side of these flank bastions and running round the large bastion are bomb-proof chambers of burnt brick which once served as the quarters for the garrison. These very quarters are now occupied by hotels and typewriting institutions. These casements are continued at intervals all round the fort. Inside, two medium sized cannons are lying in disuse. The fort was dismantled and disarmed after the mutiny in 1858. It never was a place of any strength, being commanded from the high ground of the old town. Inside is the *divānkhānā*, a large building of stone and burnt brick purely in the Hindu style which formerly was the Chief's residence. Now the fort and its premises house the various government offices like the Collector's the treasury, the central jail, sanitary sub-division, public health, home guards, etc. Within the premises there is a B.T. College, a high school, the museum which has been proposed to be shifted elsewhere, and quite a few residential bungalows.

Willingdon College Museum.

The Museum, for the present is housed in a small building owned by the *Rājā* of Sāngli within the fort premises. At the entrance of the building enlarged photographs of the famous caves of Kārlā, Ajantā and Ellora are displayed. A model of the bridge across the Kṛṣṇā in Sāṅgli city is kept in a wooden showcase. In a big and well ventilated hall on the first storey of this building is the major collection. Of the collection the most important are the original paintings of A. N. Muller and James Wales. There is a fine painting of Nanā Phaḍṇīs from Meṇavali *vaḍā*. It also contains a few paintings of Dhurandhar, the well-known artist.

The collection displayed in the museum consists of Western and Eastern curios such as Roman Clock, a model of the leaning tower of Pisā, flower pots, chinese porcelain, a model of golden temple of Buddha in Japan. There are also various other objects of fine art such as ivory carved objects and sandal wood articles.

There are marble statues of Julius Caesar, Cleopātrā and small models of the British royal family. The *Rājā* of Sāṇgli donated his entire collection to this museum.

In 1954, the museum was taken over by the Wellingdon College for management and the Principal acts as its director. It receives an annual grant of Rs. 1,500 towards its maintenance expenditure. In 1961 it received Rs. 5,000 from the Government of India for printing picture post-cards and purchase of show cases. It is felt that the primary requirements of the museum are space and a trained curator in the absence of which no

substantial progress can be achieved. For this purpose the college authorities have applied to the Government of India for a building grant of Rs. 2,50,000.

Objects.

The museum at present has very few exhibits of local importance and interest. But efforts are being made to acquire old sculptures and manuscripts. It is open to the public between 2 and 6 p.m.

Ganapati Temple.

Of all the objects of interest in Sāṅglī town in point of beauty and magnificence, Gaṇeś temple is of the greatest attraction and draws hundreds of devotees everyday. It is said and believed by one and all that the Paṭvardhan *Sardārs* achieved power and success and ultimate greatness due to the blessings of this deity. It is the *Kuladaivata* of not only the Paṭvardhans but of at least more than half the population of Sāṅglī. Besides the main temple of Gaṇeś there are four more, but smaller ones, of Sūryanārāyaṇ, Cintāmaṇeśvar, Lakṣmī-Narayaṇ and Cintāmaṇeśvarī, which together with the chief deity forms the Gaṇapati *pañcāyatan*.

The construction work was started by the late Śrī Āppasāheb Paṭvardhan and was actually completed in about 1844. The blocks of stone employed in the construction were brought from the Jyotibā hills near Kolhāpūr, a distance of nearly 64.37 to 72.42 km (40 to 45 miles). Those had to be brought on huge platforms which required about fifteen bullocks to pull.

The whole, including the former residence of the Chief, stands in a fairly large quadrangular court. The Chief's residence is close by and facing the river, on which side there is a wall flanked by two bastions and loopholed for musketry. Śrī Cintāmaṇrav Āppāhāheb Paṭvardhan built the *maṇḍap* at a later date. The stone used is of the same type as that employed for the construction of the original temple and the sculptural work and the designs are also befitting the original shrine. It was completed in 1952 and was inaugurated at the hands of Dr. Sarvapalli Radhakrishnan, the then Vice-President of India and the present President.

A huge and massive gate of red sand-stone, recently constructed, leads into the spacious courtyard planted with coconut palms and very many other trees and plants, in the midst of which stands the sacred temple of Gaṇapati. The gate has a grandeur of its own and is the work of skilled architects and artisans of great repute. It is composed of three arch-shaped entrances, each crowned with a *gumbaz*. The central arch is loftier and bigger than the side ones and has superb stone *jali* lattice work. They are also decorated with many other patterns and carvings. From the threshold of the gate one can have a complete view of the inside of the temple.

A finely decorated lofty door leads into the extensive *maṇḍap* hall supported on eight highly polished and ornamented pillars. It has galleries on two sides having a number of arches

formed in between very many pillars, also of polished black stone. Even the ceiling of the *mandap* bears lovely creeper—designs, with a huge chandelier, with innumerable prisms, hanging from the centre of the ceiling. In addition to the main entrance there are four more doors, two on either side. On the walls are reproduced sacred *hymns* from the *Bhagvadgitā*.

The original edifice built by Śrī Āppāsāheb Paṭvardhan is on a dais of about 15.24 x 9.14 metres (50′ x 30′) having about 14 pillars also of polished black stone. These pillars form ten arches and are ornamented suitably. Of the same colour are the tiles that pave the floor. In the *gābhārā* is placed the white marble idol of Gaṇapati with Ṛdhi and Sidhi to the right and left, respectively. All these idols are housed in a small dome-like structure also of white marble, which in turn is installed on a 1.16 metres (3½ ft.) pedestal of black stone. In the background is a mirror which besides reflecting the idols gives an excellent view of the front side of the temple. This part is approached by steps fixed at both the extreme ends. On the same platform but outside the *gābhārā*, to the right of the visitor, is a casket of glass containing the chariot of Arjuna. While the chariot is of sandal wood, the images of Arjuna and Kṛṣṇa are of ivory. It delineates Kṛṣṇa preaching *Bhagvadgītā* to Arjuna when he refused to fight the Kauravas on the historic battle-field of Kurukṣetra. The *gābhārā* is crowned by a *śikhar* with a brass spire plated with gold. It bears various designs and carvings and figure-filled niches. In the corners there are smaller replicas of the main *śikhar*. There is a fine terrace above the *maṇḍap*.

The shrine is an excellent specimen of stone carvings and especially the glass-like polished stone-work evokes admiration. Unrivalled in its finish and magnificence, it has become an object of keen interest for the people visiting Sāṅglī. Though over a century has elapsed since the construction of the original shrine it has not lost its beauty in the slightest degree. In the courtyard on either side there are two fountains, shaped like lotus flowers.

Of the remaining four temples of the *pancāyatan*, two, viz., Cintāmaṇeśvar and Sūryanārāyaṇ are on the right side, arranged one behind the other, placing one of the fountains mentioned above in the middle. The other two, *viz.*, Lakṣmī-Nārāyaṇ and Cintāmaṇeśvarī are on the left also arranged in the same manner. They are more or less identical replicas of the original edifice of the Gaṇapati temple and contain white marble idols of the respective gods and goddesses. Behind the temple of Sūryanārāyaṇ there is the figure of a baby elephant shown to be trampling a tiger under its feet. It is of black stone.

Gaṇeś Caturthī festival is the most important of all and attracts thousands of persons. The temple enjoys *inām* grants made by

the Paṭvardhans which continue till the present day. To look after the maintenance of the temple a Gaṇapāti Pancāyatan Trust has been created.

In the backyard of the Gaṇeś temple court there is a small black stone idol of Kuraṇeśvarī. It is housed in a small arch of stone. The goddess is said to fulfil the wishes of Her devotees and hence people attach much religious significance to it. People visiting the Gaṇeś temple generally take *darśan* of this goddess too.

Gomātā Mandir or Pānjarpoḷ Saṁsthā.

Gomātā *Mandīr* or *Pānjarpoḷ Saṁsthā* is located in the area known after the second name at a stone's throw from the Gaṇapati shrine. It was started by Śrī Aṇṇāsāheb Sakhārām Rājmāne in *Śaka* 1826 with the sole intention of saving the old and disabled cattle from falling into the hands of butchers. Provision of fresh and pure milk for new born babes and breeding of healthy cattle for agricultural purposes was later on made another of its objectives. The Gomāta *mandir* consists of two long quadrangular halls quite separate and detached from each other forming a narrow lane in between. At the farther end of the passage is a small ten-arched canopy containing a white marble idol of Kṛṣṇa leaning against a cow also made of the same stone. Two of the pillars forming the front arch have been magnificently decorated with small, carefully set-in white and stained glass pieces. Of the two halls one is used as a cow shed and the other is equipped with stage performance equipment where dramas can be enacted or marriage receptions held. The hall is let on hire. Attached to this are a few apartments which are also rented.

On the walls of the cattle shed the whole life story of Kṛṣṇa right from his birth in Kaṁsa's prison is illustrated by means of a series of fine picture paintings. On one of the walls of the second hall are a few more depicting some of His acts and deeds. In addition, in this hall, there are painted portraits of eminent Indians like, Mahatma Gandhi, Jawaharlal Nehru, Rajendra Prasad, Sardar Patel, Subhash Chandra Bose, Maulana Abul Kalam Azad, Rabindranath Tagore, Vinoba Bhave, Sarojini Nayadu, Dr. Radhakrishnan and Bhaurav Patil, the last named being a well-known philanthrophist of Saṅglī. There are also like portraits of Buddhā, Rāma,, Sītā, Lakṣmī and Sarasvatī

The roofs of both these halls are arranged in such a way that they form a series of crests and troughs in the front. In these troughs and crests are set in small but majestic statues of Chatrapati Śivāji riding on a horse with a drawn sword, Rāṇī Lakṣmibāī of Jhānśi, also in the same pose, Dattātraya leaning against a cow and that of Kṛṣṇa. Gomātā *mandir* is registered with government and was receiving an annual grant of Rs. 2,000 from government in the initial stages. The grant has now been discontinued. Yet another branch of this *saṁsthā* has been opened at Kavṭhā.

Tiḷak Mandir or Gītā Mandir.

Tiḷak *Mandir* also known as Gītā *Mandir* is in the Peṭh Bhāg and occupies a spacious court fenced by iron bars. In the compound in a handsome little canopy is housed a marble bust of

Places.

SANGLI.

Objects.

Lokmānya Bāḷ Gaṅgādhar Ṭiḷak, one of the greatest freedom-fighters of India. The canopy is four pillared, of which two are embedded in the back wall. On either side in the same compound are two buildings in one of which is housed a library named as Gītā *Mandir* and is dedicated to the memory of Lokmānya Ṭiḷak.

Mahatma Gandhi and Jawaharlal Nehru Statues.

The statues of Mahatma Gandhi and Jawaharlal Nehru, the foremost makers of modern India, have been installed in the middle of the Mahatma Gandhi road just near the Sāṅglī railway station. These are of life-size and are mounted on high pillar-like pedestals.

Chatrapati Śivājī Statue.

An equestrian statue of Chatrapati Śivājī Mahārāj, cast in bronze, is installed right opposite the vegetable market named after him. Unlike many other statues, here he is shown to be riding on a mare depicted in a galloping position. It is mounted on a pedestal 3.65 metres (12′) broad and 2.43 metres (8′) high. The statue itself is 3.20 metres (10½′) high and looks very majestic and imposing. It was installed at a total cost of Rs. 30,000 and was unveiled on 31st July 1962, by Shri Y. B. Chavan, the then Chief Minister of Mahārāṣṭra and the present Home Minister of India.

Pārśvanāth Śvetāmbar Jain Mandir.

Pārśvanāth Śvetāmbar Jain temple, standing in an enclosed courtyard, is situated in Vakhār Bhāg. It has a 2.32 m² (25 ft. square) *sabhāmaṇḍap* supported on 12 pillars of cement, each having a Garūḍ figure at the base and winged female figures at the top, shown to be supporting the roof. These images are also of cement. They are excellently painted. A chandelier is hung from the ceiling. The *gābhārā* door-frame is studded with marble slabs while the side walls are set in with stained glass pieces arranged to form various types of flower patterns. The door is silver-plated and decorated with some excellent sculptural work. On either side of the entrance to the *gābhārā* there are niches in the wall containing idols of Gaṇapati and Padmāvatī *Devi* respectively. The *gābhārā* is 0.557 m² (six feet square) and besides the main idol of Pārśvanāth with a silver *prabhāvaḷ* round it also contains those of Kuntināth, Mahāvir and Arnāth. The chief idol dons a silver crown. Mahāvir *Jayantī* is the principal festival celebrated and is attended by nearly all the Śvetāmbar Jains in the town. On this occasion a palanquin procession is taken. The temple is surmounted by a *śikhar* with a brass spire. A trust known as Pārśvanāth Jain Trust looks after the management.

Pratāpsiṁha Udyān.

The garden named after the second son of the *Raja* of Sāṅglī is just near the municipal building and is spread over an area of 1481.22 m² (1750 sq. yards), donated by the *Rājā*. In the centre is installed a marble bust of Pratāpsiṁha and is flanked by two of the three fountains ornamenting the garden. Squares are prepared with the help of *koyanel* plants leaving paths and cross-paths. Some fine lawns have also been prepared. The cross-paths are decorated with bowers of creepers. Human and animal figures have been artistically cut out of the plants and are kept into shape. A part of it is set aside for females. There are also separate

CHAPTER 19. Places. SANGLI. Objects.

corners for children provided with swings, merry-go-rounds, balances and such other types of devices. It also contains some species of birds and animals. In large boxes white rabbits and mice are kept. A large aviary contains some interesting species of birds. The Jijāmātā Śiśu Mandir. a Montessori conducted by the municipality falls within the garden premises. There is a nursery growing a variety of flower plants. But the most striking feature of the garden is the *cakravyuha* or a sort of battle array also formed of *koyanel* plants.

Kodaṇḍadhārī Rāma Mandir.

Kodaṇḍadhārī Rāma *Mandir,* about half a century old, is a private shrine located in Śivāji Nagar area along Sāṅglī-Miraj road. Before reaching the main hall a long narrow quandrangular hall is to be crossed. The *maṇḍap* is quite spacious and the chamber containing the idols is 1.39 m^2 (15 ft. square). A small canopy with its front side decorated with a silver arch holds the idols of Rama, Lakṣmaṇa and Sita, the first two of which don silver crowns. There are also idols of Hanuman, Gaṇapati and a *liṅg* symbol placed in small canopies at the other end of the *maṇḍap*. *Ramanavami* is the major festival celebrated.

Nava Muralīdhar Mandir.

Nava Muralidhar temple, near Śivaji *Madaāi,* is a strong edifice of masonry built on an elevated surface. It has a compound wall also of the same stone. Its 22 pillared spacious *sabhāmaṇḍap* has six doors and an equal number of windows. The pillars are of wood and half of them are embedded in the side walls. The *gabhara* is on a higher plain from that of the *maṇḍap* and has 12 like pillars forming eight arches. These arches are ornamented with some fine creeper-carvings and floral patterns. The idols of Radhā and Kṛṣṇa are placed on a pedestal of polished black stone Nearby, there are two marble images of cows. On either side of the *gabhara* there is a room each, one of which is used as a store-house and the other is believed to be the retiring room of the deity. The temple has a *śikhar* of no great significance, with a brass spire. In a canopy outside the *maṇḍap* there is an image of Garūḍa. At the base of the same canopy there is an aperture containing an idol of Hanumān. *Gokulāṣṭamī* is the only festival celebrated.

Pārśvanath Digambar Jain Mandir.

Parśvanath Digambar Jain *Mandir* stands on the banks of the Kṛṣṇā and though very antique (nearly 500 years old) is to date in a very good condition It has an enclosure of brick and mortar on three sides, and the temple building excluding the *śikhar* which is of brick and *cunam* is of solid black stone. Its *sabhāmaṇḍap* is divided into two halls. While the door-frame of the outer hall is very simple with no decorations, that of the inner hall is ornamented with very delicate and beautiful designs. In the centre of the inner hall there is a 0.929 m^2 (10 ft. square) *cabutarā* or raised platform studded with marble tiles bearing embossed designs of flowers. It is used to perform the *pujā*. On either side of the *gabhārā* entrance there are two niches containing idols of Sarasvati and a *Kṣetrapāl* respectively. The *gābharā* is 3.04 × 2.43 metres (10′ × 8′) and there are three step-like arranged

pedestals, one above the other. On the lower step there is an idol of Nandeśvar, and on the middle that of Pārśvanāth of white marble sheltered by a nine-hooded cobra image. On the uppermost there are three more idols of Pārśvanāth, but are much smaller. A tall *śikhar* with a gold plated spire surmounts the temple. On it there are designs of niches studded with picture frames of Digambara Jains. In the four corners there are smaller replicas of the main *śikhar.* Mahāvīr *Jayantī* is celebrated in *Caitra.*

Viṣṇu Mandir.

Viṣṇu *Mandir* is situated on the banks of the Kṛṣṇā near Viṣṇu *ghāṭ*. It seems to be quite old from the decayed and worn out looks it wears. On three sides of it there is a wall enclosing a small court. Its *maṇḍap* is 10.66 × 7.31 (35′ × 25′) and is of ordinary construction. There are galleries above, but they lie unused and unfrequented since many years. The idol-chamber is 1.11 m² (12 ft. square) and is of masonry. The idol of Viṣṇu is four-handed armed with a disc and a cudgel. It is in a sitting posture with Lakṣmī, the goddess of wealth, on the left lap. On the same side there are tiny idols of Viṭṭhal and Rakhumai. Though the temple edifice is quite big as compared to other shrines on the river bank, it is in no way significant but may passingly be noted.

Lakṣmī Nārāyaṇ Temple.

Situated in the Vakhār Bhag, the Lakṣmī-Narayan temple is a little over 40 years old. It is a simple modern building with a huge *maṇḍap* having an open courtyard in the centre lined with 10 pillars. The *gābhārā* measuring about 1.11 m² (12 ft. square) contains the idols of Lakṣmī and Nārāyaṇ on a platform in a standing posture. Crowns of silver don the sacred heads. Nārāyaṇ is *caturbhuj* or four-armed and holds a conch shell, disc a cudgel and a lotus in the four hands. In the *maṇḍap* there is an image of Garūḍa. Among the more important festivals celebrated are *Rāmanavamī* and *Janmāṣṭamī.*

Dvārakānāth Mandir.

Dvarakānāth *Mandir*, situated not far away from Tiḷak *Mandir*, was built in 1930. It belongs to the Vaiṣṇava community and occupies the entire ground floor of a private building. A door decorated with fine wood-work leads into the courtyard. The *maṇḍap* is divided into two halves the outer and the inner, measuring 6.09 × 2.43 metres (20′ × 8′) and 10.66 × 3.65 metres (35′ × 12′) respectively. It is on a raised plinth and has sixteen wooden pillars, the top of each of which is ornamented with female human figures finished with exquisite skill. The designs and decorations especially on the front four pillars are noteworthy. The *maṇḍap* is entered through a 1.82 × .914 metres (6′ × 3′) door with its frame bearing exquisite carvings. In the centre of the *maṇḍap* there is a fountain with a chandelier overhanging. The *gābhārā* is 0.557 m² (6 ft. square) and the idol of the god is placed on a pedestal of Jaipūr black marble. Crowns of peacock feathers, gold and silver are donned on different occasions according as the *Puṣṭi Sampradāy* prescribes. The temple though of modern construction is rendered beautiful by polished and fine wood-work which compares favourably with that on the ancient temples. *Gokuḷāṣṭamī* and *Divāḷī* are celebrated amidst great rejoicings. A

trust known as Dvārakānāth public charity trust looks after the maintenance and property of the temple. The temple possesses three buildings bringing an annual income of Rs. 14,000 by way of rent. The trust has invested Rs. 39,000 in government securities and deposited Rs. 25,000 in the bank.

Jumma Masjid. Jummā *Masjd* is in Patel *cowk* and was built in 1277 *Rajab,* being now 110 years old. It is in the traditional style with a lofty entrance leading into the courtyard. The mosque consists of two halls, the outer measuring 7.62 × 3.65 metres (25′ × 12′) approximately and the inner measuring 9.14 × 7.31 metres (30′ × 24′). On the walls of the mosque there are arch-like formations. The inner hall has a tin roof : but the front has a terrace and is crowned by two big minars.

Meccā Masjid. The Meccā *Masjd* is located in Peṭh Bhāg. It was an old mosque but has now been rebuilt with the addition of a single storey. The upper storey has galleries and is divided into two halls of 12.19 × 4.57 metres (40′ × 15′) and 10.66 × 9.14 metres (35′ × 30′) dimensions, respectively. There are arch-like formations on the wall and near the central arch there is an opening on the ground floor. The ground floor is also likewise divided into two halls and the measurements and other things are more or less the same as the first floor only with the exception that here there are no galleries. While the front covering the outer hall has a terrace, the back part has a tiled roof. Within the compound to the north there is a water-storing tank with some coloured fishes.

Amrai Garden. Amrai is the biggest garden in Sāṅglī and was laid out some 125 years ago by Srimant Āppasaheb Paṭvardhan and is said to derive its name from a large number of mango trees which were in existence then. It covers an area of nearly 6.07 hectares (15 acres) and has a 304.80 metres (1,000 ft.) long entrance passage with avenues of splendid trees. It contains as many as 200 varieties of different trees, plants and shrubs of medicinal value. Of the trees prominent are tamarind, almond, *deodar*, casurina, a few of mango and many other varieties. The garden is now maintained by government and is placed in charge of the Superintendent of Parks and Gardens, Mahārāṣṭra State. A nursery section has also been set up and it supplies plants required by the colleges in Sāṅglī doing research in botany. The nursery besides suppiying one and a quarter lakh plants of 24 dfferent varieties to the *Vanamahotsava*, produces two lakhs of additional plants which are sold at nominal rates Seeds and seedlings of different varieties of flower plants are also sold. The government spends nearly two lakhs of rupees annually on the maintenance of the garden.

Sāṅglī has yet another garden named as Sāne Guruji *Udyān* and is maintained by the municipality.

Rāma Tekaḍī Mandir. The Rāma temple on a rising ground is near the water-works providing water to Sāṅglī town, and hence is known as Rāma *Tekaḍi Mandir.* Architecturally the temple is in no way significant but the idols are believed to have been installed by Tulsidās

Mahārāj, one of the noted saints and hence it has been invested with utmost sanctity. In fact the structure in which the idols are housed is a *maṭh* having only a quadrangular hall supported on 12 simple wooden pillars. At both the extreme ends of this hall there is a *gābhārā* each, in one of which are idols of Rama, Lakṣmaṇa and Sītā and in the other that of Hanumān. The main *gābhārā* is surmounted by a *śikhar* with a brass spire.

Bālājī Mandir.

Bālājī temple, reported to be nearly 112 years old, is located along the main road and is privately owned by the Mārvāḍī Vaiṣṇava community. To the right of the entrance is a chamber containing a *liṅg* in its centre with a small image of *nandī* facing it. There is also a cabin containing idols of Śaṅkar, Pārvatī and Gaṇapati. The walls of this chamber, up to a height of 0.914 metres (three feet) are studded with marble slabs bearing flower and other designs of considerable interest. Beyond this is the extensive 12.19 x 9.14 metres (40′ x 30′) *maṇḍap* supported on 30 wooden pillars of stone bases. Some of these pillars have been arranged so as to form a quadrangle just near the *gābhārā*. Here, under a canopy studded with coloured marble tiles, is an image of Māruti. The walls of the *maṇḍap* have been similarly decorated as in case of the chamber outside. The *maṇḍap* has double galleries, arranged one above the other. *Gabhāra* entrance is plated with silver, ornamented with artistic sculptural work. Both sides of the entrance are studded with marble tiles bearing embossed figures of Sūryanārāyaṇ, Viṣṇu, Dattātraya, Rāmapancāyatan, Satyanārāyaṇ, Gopāḷ Kṛṣṇa and many other deities. On the lowermost tiles are peacock figures, three on each side, depicted in a dancing mood. In the centre of the *gabhāra*, on a pedestal are placed the idols of Rāma, his consort Sita, and Lakṣmaṇ made of five metals, wearing crowns of brocade. It also contains a tabouret plated with silver as also a small charpoy also made of silver. Both of these are ornamented with exquisite designs. The inside walls are decorated with tiles bearing coloured flower designs. Outside the *maṇḍap* a narrow quadrangular hall is maintained for the use of ascetics and mendicants. *Rāmanavamī*, *Gokulāṣṭamī* and *Narasiṁha Caturthī* are celebrated with great eclat. The Bālājī Mandir (Pvt.) Trust looks after its management. It owns three buildings fetching an annual rent of Rs. 6,000.

Hanumān Mandir.

Hanumān *Mandir*, with a 10.66 x 9.14 metres (35′ x 30′) *maṇḍap* is situated along Datta-Māruti road. It is on a higher ground and is reached by climbing eight steps in two stages. The *maṇḍap* is open on all the sides except for a lowly constructed balustrade. On one of the stones of the *maṇḍap* an image of a tortoise has been carved in relief. There is a like image of Gaṇapati on the *gābhārā* lintel. The *gābhārā* is 0.743 m^2 (8 ft. square) and its door is plated with brass sheets with some fine designs sculptured upon it. An idol of Hanumān besmeared with red-lead is placed inside. Hanumān *Jayantī* and *Ramanavamī* are celebrated. Its management rests with the Ganeś temple, Sāṅglī. Attached to the temple is a *dharmaśālā*, and in one of its rooms which lies exactly behind the temple is an idol of Gaṇapati.

CHAPTER 19. Places. SANGLI. Objects. *Temples on the Kṛṣṇā bank nearabout the Bridge.*

Kṛṣṇābāi temple.—There are a series of small temples on the bank of the Kṛṣṇā nearabout the bridge. Of these the Kṛṣṇābāi temple and Satyavrata Tīrtha *Svāmī Samādhi* claim importance. The Kṛṣṇābāi temple is near the *ghāṭ* (biggest of all) known after the goddess and is on an elevated ground approached by six big steps. In the front it has four pillars. A 1.39 m² (fifteen feet square) *gābhārā* contains an idol of the goddess. The whole edifice is of masonry and is adorned by a *śikhar.*

Rāmeśvar temple.—To the right hand side of the Kṛṣṇābāi temple is the shrine of Rāmeśvar consisting of only one chamber 5.48 × 5.48 metres (18′ × 18′). It contains an idol of Rāmeśvar in a sitting pose with a *liṅg* in front. It has a *śikhar* measuring nearly 6.09 metres (20 ft.) from the wall top. Practically all the shrines have identical *śikhars* though they may be varying in height. On a small platform outside the temple there are two broken and headless images of *nandī*. By the side, there is also a small shrine of Maruti.

Dattātraya temple.—This shrine is to the left of the Kṛṣṇābāī temple. It is not a big temple but may be noted as it is visited by numerous people. A small *gābhārā* holds the usual three-faced image of Dattātraya with images of cows and other animals nearby. In front there are quite a few banyan trees worshipped by the women folk on *Vaṭasāvitrī* day.

Mahādev temple.—Close by the Datta temple is a temple dedicated to Māhadev. built in *Śaka* 1852. It contains the *liṅg* of Mahadev and is shaded by two banyan. two pipal and an *umbar tree.* In front of the temple detached from it, is a tin shaded *maṇḍap.* Numerous people visit the shrine everyday.

Māruti temple.—This temple is near Viṣṇu *ghāṭ* on the Kṛṣṇā bank. It is a very small shrine, a cement shed of late having been constructed over it. The idol is believed to have been installed by Rāmadās *Svāmi*, the gurū of Chatrapati Śivaji. On the river side at the base of the temple there are a few *ovarīs* or small niche-like structures which are supposed to have been used by *sādhus* to perform penance. The deity is held in high reverence and is believed to be a *jagṛta daivata* fulfilling the cherished wishes of its devotees. In the vicinity of the temple, scattered around it, are four *liṅgas*, a shrine of Gaṇapati and an unknown *samādhi*. Here there is one more shrine of Kṛṣṇabāī containing in addition to the idol of the goddess those of Śaṅkar and Gaṇapati.

So numerous are the temples on the Kṛṣṇā bank. though small in size. that they give the river and the town a religious background and sanctity.

Śrīmat Satyavratatīrtha Svāmī Samādhi.—The *samādhi* of Satyavratatīrtha *Svāmī*, the 18th *Maṭhādhiś* belonging to *Śrīman-mādhvācārya Uttarādimaṭh* lineage, is near the Viṣṇu *ghāṭ*. He took *samādhi* some 300 years ago. The usage of the prefix

Temples on the Kṛṣṇā Bank near about the Bridge.

satya (truth) came to be applied to the *Uttarādi Maṭhādhīśas* from this *Svāmī*. He came to the *gādi* after securing permission from Śrīmat Vedanidhitīrtha, the 17th *Maṭhādhīś*. He came on the banks of the Kṛṣṇā and engaged himself in penance and religious austerities and finally took *samādhi* there. Because of this, that part came to be known as *Tapovana*. This place is still known for its spiritual inspiration. About a century and a half later while *Śrī* Satyasaṅgha *Svāmī* was staying in this area, he saw a divine flame (*jyoti*) near a *vṛndāvan*. To investigate the matter, digging was started when a three arched structure was discovered. Any further digging was prevented by the emergence of a swarm of black bees (*bhuṅge*). But Satyasaṅgh *Svāmī* did not give up hope of the *darśan* of Satyavrata *Svāmī* and hence started reading and re-reading *Nyāya-Candrikā granth* of Satyavratatirth near the *samādhi*. Upon this the *Svāmī* was pleased and as an indication the *samādhi* began to swing to and fro. For many years none dared to construct an edifice over it, for such enthusiasts were prevented from doing so by telling that " the penance is still continuing " Ultimately the building was constructed in 1938 by late *Śrī* Aśvathārāv Mahiśi after obtaining due consent of the *Svāmī*. The *maṭh* housing the 2.43 metres (8 ft.) *vṛndāvan* is 4.57 x 4.57 metres (15′ x 15′) and the *pādukās* of the *Svāmī* are also placed at the foot of the *samādhi*. It is believed that the *Svāmī* still traverses that region at night time. He is also said to be seen sitting in a meditative pose under the pipal tree which is close by. The *puṇyatithī* of the *Svāmī* falls on *Phalguna Śuddha Ṣaṣṭhī* and is celebrated by distributing food.

SHIRALA.

Śirāḷā, 16° 59′ north latitude and 74° 11′ east longitude, is the headquarters of the *mahāl* of the same name, with 6,411 inhabitants in 1961. It lies 14.43 km (nine miles) south-west of Peṭh on the Vārṇā valley and has sprung up on either side of a stream which flows into the Morṇā, a tributary of the Vārṇā a mile downstream. It is surrounded on three sides by barren hills with broken and undulating ground in the neighbourhood. The chief crops grown are paddy, groundnut and sugarcane. In recent years, however, a tendency to switch over to sugarcane plantation is noticed. Śirāḷā has primary schools, two high schools, a primary health centre with a maternity home attached, a veterinary dispensary, a branch post office, a police station and branches of the district co-operative and the urban bank. The brass lamps or *samais* manufactured here are well-known all over the district. Monday is the bazar day. Drinking water is obtained from the wells and the river. The village was surrounded by mud walls and during the times of the Marāṭhās was a fort of some strength. A hereditary officer of some dignity was always posted at Śirāḷā for the administration of the surrounding tracts and custody of records.

Objects.
Gorakhnāth Shrine.

About three quarters of a mile from the village there is an antique shrine dedicated to Gorakhnāth situated amidst a small grove of tamarind trees. In ancient days the grove was very

CHAPTER 19. Places. SHIRALA. Objects. *Gorakhnāth Shrine.*

large and was frequented by a large number of peacocks whose lives were carefully respected and which fed on the grains thrown to them by the Gosāvis inhabiting the *math* or the monastic house. The image of the presiding deity is a large mill-stone placed on the north side of a gigantic old tamarind tree of the species known as *Gorakh Āmli*. There is an image of Gorakhnāth installed in the *math* by the *Gosāvīs*. A remarkable property is attributed to this tree. Its bark is scored everywhere in every direction by natural lines and cracks. These are believed to be the characters written by the deity in an unknown tongue and every *Kanphaṭā* devotee coming to worship there has his name written on the tree. A fair in great local repute is held in the month of *Caitra* or March-April. It is attended by many Liṅgāyat Vāṇīs, Marāṭhās and other people.

Nāgapancamī Festival.

Perhaps the most distinguishing feature of the village is the way the *Nagapancamī* festival is observed and celebrated by its inhabitants. It is celebrated by the village folk of *Battis Śirāḷā* with a difference in that venomous snakes are made to sport by the village folk. This unique way of observance of the festival has aroused the curiosity of even foreigners. Legend tells us that the village was formerly known as Śrigaḷ and the local inhabitants used to worship a clay image of the snake-god. One day while Gorakhnāth was on his usual rounds for alms he had to wait on the threshold of a house for quite some time. The woman of the house who came with alms a little later, regretted the delay and told the saint that she was engaged in the worship of clay image of *Nāga*. The saint thereupon produced a live snake by his divine powers and asked her to worship it instead, assuring her and the village folk at the same time that on *Nāgapancamī* day the snakes would do no harm. The inhabitants of the thirty-two neighbouring villages following this incident became his ardent devotees and hence significantly enough the village has earned the name Battis Śirāḷā.

Following this practice, even to this day, when the festival approaches, people round-up hundreds of venomous snakes from the neighbouring hilly regions and take them out in a procession on the *Nāgapancamī* day. A spacious platform has specially been constructed on which snakes are made to dance to the tune of pebble filled earthen pots which are gently made to roll on the ground. It is very interesting to note the village folk both young and old going about merrily with snakes round their necks without the slightest expression of fear on their faces. Fights between snakes and *ghorpaḍs* are also arranged. To witness this unusual spectacle thousands of enthusiasts gather, coming from Bombay, Kolhāpūr, Pooṇā, Sātārā and many other places.

Ambābāī Temple.

Ambābāī temple is to the west of the village. It has an enclosure on three sides and is built on an elevated ground with three arches in the front. The *maṇḍap* is 1.85 m² (20 ft. square). At its farther end, just near the *gābhārā* there is a *liṅg* and

nearby is a hole in the ground. A story is current about this hole. It is said that a certain Brāhmaṇ used to read *pothī* in the temple every morning and that a snake emerging out of this hole listened to it and gave the Brāhmaṇ a *mohar* or gold coin each day. One day as the Brāhmaṇ had to go out of the village on business, he commanded his son to perform the duty, telling him all about the snake. As usual when the snake turned back after delivering the *mohar*, the Brāhmaṇ's son tried to hit it with the intention of taking the whole store of *mohars*. But the aim missed and the snake never again appeared. The *gābhārā* lintel is decorated with an image of Gaṇapati and on its either side there are other images of deities carved on blocks of stone. The vestibule contains the image of Ambābāī depicted as sitting on a full bloomed lotus. Outside the enclosure there is a *dīpmāḷ* with a banyan tree nearby. On *Nāgapancamī* day a fair is held in honour of the goddess. On this occassion live cobras are worshipped. The temple is a solid work in masonry.

Hanumān Mandir.

The Hanumān *Mandir* situated on the left bank of the Torṇā stream, is reported to be one of those established by Rāmdās *Svāmī*. It is of masonry, situated amidst fine natural surroundings with a cluster of trees around and an extensive sugarcane field in the front. The front side of the *maṇḍap* has three arches bearing some carvings. On either side of the *gābhārā* which is 0.929 m^2 (ten feet square) there are *dvārapālas* and inside, an idol of Hanumān besmeared with red lead. Hanumān *Jayantī* attended by the local people is celebrated.

TAKARI.

Tākārī (pop. 2,119) is a village in Vāḷvā *tālukā* lying south of the Sātārā-Tāsgāṅv road 14.48 km (nine miles) north of Islāmpur, 16.09 km (ten miles) north-east of Peṭh and 25.74 km (16 miles) south-east of Karhāḍ. It is remarkable for a curious cave known as Kamalbhairī, after the temple of the same name, situated on the south face of a range which runs nearly south-east about 0.85 km (half a mile) north of the road. A very steep scrambling ascent of about a quarter of a mile, especially the last 15.24 metres (50 feet) with a few steps made here and there, leads to a platform of rock 18.28 metres (20 yards) east of which is the cave. The white-washed temple of Kamalbhairī which blocks up the south-east end of the cave looks conspicuous from a long distance. The cave, most of it being a natural excavation, about 12.19 metres (40 feet) long by 9.14 metres (30 feet) deep, contains an oblong pond (11′ × 10′ – 3.35 × 3.04 metres) of good water with steps leading down at its east end. West of the cave is a small artificial looking chamber, evidently used as a temple of Mahādev with a *liṅg*. About 3.04 metres (ten feet) further on is yet another pond but is considerably smaller. The temple is a fine structure measuring about 7.62 × 3.04 metres (25′ × 10′). It consists of a small hall and a shrine or *gābhārā*, the hall or *maṇḍap* having 1.82 metres (six feet) high pillars in three courses, rectangular, cylindrical and octagonal, supporting a stone roof. The shrine is a square

CHAPTER 19. Places. TAKARI.

chamber with a stone roof on which is raised a conical superstructure of brick and mortar with a *kaḷas* or pinnacle on the top. The temple is said to have been built by one Rāmrāv Bhagvant of Cāndar near Cikoḍī in Beḷgānv in about 1730. A fair in honour of Kamalbhairī is held on the dark fourteenth of *Māgha* (or February-March) and lasts for three days. The image of Kamalbhairī is carried in *pālkhī* or litter procession all through the fair night. Tākārī has three primary schools, a high school teaching up to 9th standard, a branch post office and an inspection bungalow. Sugarcane is grown here in abundance. Being a railway station, Tākārī has grown into a fairly big trade centre and has a market yard. Raw sugar, turmeric and betel-leaves are the chief articles of export.

TASGAON.

Tāsgānv, 17° 2′ north latitude and 74° 40′ east longitude, the headquarters of the *tālukā* of the same name, is a municipal town of 16,649 inhabitants. It is 102.99 km (sixty-four miles) south-east of Sātārā by the Sātārā-Tāsgānv road. The route *via* Karhāḍ though 3.21 km (two miles) distant is much more convenient. Now the place is generally approached by a visitor by getting down at Bhilavaḍī, a railway station on the Pooṇā-Miraj route of the South-Central Railway, from where Tāsgānv is only 9.65 km (six miles) to the west.

The town is on a slightly elevated ground on the north bank of a stream flowing into the Yerlā about 6.43 km (four miles) to the south-west. The Sātārā-Tāsgānv road crosses the Yerlā 4.82 km (three miles) west of Tāsgānv. Except during monsoons its bed runs very dry and though the floods last for a very short time they are very sudden. This stream is the major source of water-supply and during summer pits are dug in its bed to get drinking water. To the northern side of the town there are seven draw wells which also hold a good quantity of water.

Tāsgānv is a commercial centre of some repute in the district and has a large community of traders. The great trade of the town is in cotton. The principal crops grown are cotton, tobacco, sugarcane, groundnuts and chillis. The traders locally purchase these commodities and send them to the markets of Sātārā, Solāpūr, Pooṇā and Cipḷuṇ. In exchange commodities like salt, sugar, piece-goods, metals and spices are brought. At present a market committee is functioning in the town and there is a proposal to set up an industrial estate. There is a considerable population of weavers engaged in weaving handloom cloth; they have formed a co-operative society. In addition there are co-operative societies of the blacksmiths and carpenters.

The māmlatdār's office, the police station and the sub-registry are housed in one and the same building. The court which for a long time used to be housed in an old dilapidated building has now decent premises. There is a municipal civil dispensary and a maternity home. A veterinary centre is under the management of the Zillā Pariṣad. The town has a seed and seedlings growing centre, a post and telegraph office and a depot of the

state transport corporation. Besides the primary schools there are two high schools, two training colleges, one each for males and females, and an Arts and Commerce college run by the Svāmī Vivekānand Education Society. For the first five years from its inception, the college received an annual grant of Rs. 10,000 from the town municipality. The municipality also makes an annual grant of Rs. 900 to the general library of the town.

Municipality.

Constitution.—The municipality here was established in 1865. Its jurisdiction extends over an area of 43.41 km² (16.76 sq. miles). Administrative affairs are looked after by the president who is elected by the councillors from among themselves.

Finance.—In 1961-62 the income of the municipality from all sources excluding extraordinary and debt heads amounted to Rs. 1,51,399. It comprised revenue derived from municipal rates and taxes Rs. 1,16,339. government grants Rs. 18,840 and miscellaneous Rs. 16,220. Expenditure during the same year amounted to Rs. 1,51,118. It comprised general administration and collection charges Rs. 29,816, public safety Rs. 20,001, public health and convenience Rs. 60,769, public instruction Rs. 30,900 and miscellaneous Rs. 9,632.

Health and Sanitation.—The municipality runs a civil dispensary and a maternity home. The drains are *pucca* stone-lined gutters. Wells and a stream form the only source of water-supply.

Education.—Primary education is compulsory and is looked after by the Zillā Pariṣad. The rate of contribution paid by the municipality is 3.81 per cent of the capital value which generally comes to about Rs. 20,231 per annum.

Cremation and Burial Places.—Only two such places are maintained by the municipality *viz.*, one for Hindus and the other for Muslims on the southern and eastern sides of the town respectively.

Objects.

Tāsgāṅv had defence fortifications but those now lie amidst ruins. There are four gates of which the Bhilavaḍī gate forms the entrance on the western side from the Tāsgāṅv-Bhilavaḍī-Aṭṣā road. Pursuing this road at a turn on the right is the dispensary. Another 45.72 metres (fifty yards) to the left or north side of the road is the school. On the southern side is the large mansion of the Tāsgāṅv Paṭvardhan family. Close by the school a street crosses this road at right angles. This is the Somvār Peṭh and here stands the Somvār gate similar to that of the Bhilavaḍī gate. Turning south through a winding continuation of the Somvār street is reached the sacred shrine of Gaṇapati. Here again the road turns east and passing through a large gateway crowned with the *Nagārkhānā* or the kettle drum room, having on its north in a room the triumphal car of the god. After about 91.44 metres (hundred yards) east through a broad street lined with shops, comes another cross

CHAPTER 19. Places. TASGAON. Objects

street the Guruvār Peṭh. It turns from north to south. The streets of Tāsgānv, more especially the Guruvār Peṭh, and the 91.44 metres (100 yards) east from Gaṇapati's temple, are usually broad and the whole town is better off for space.

The chief buildings are the Paṭvardhan mansion and the temple of Gaṇapati also built by the Paṭvardhans. The mansion of the Paṭvardhan family is a set of buildings of the ordinary type, with front and back courts and the private dwelling house between with several verandahs. It is situated in an enclosure about 32.51 m^2 (360 feet square) surrounded by mud and stone walls from 6.70 (twenty-two) to 9.14 metres (thirty feet) high on the outside, 6.09 metres (twenty feet) on the inside, and 3.04 metres (ten feet) broad all round. There are three chief gates, a small one about 9.14 metres (thirty feet) from the north-west corner and two large ones at the centre of the north and east corners. There are lofty archways fortified on each side. The northern gate was built by the greatest of the Paṭvardhans, Paraśurām Bhāu, who flourished at the end of the eighteenth century, and is often mentioned in his Indian Despatches by General Arthur Wellesely afterwards the Duke of Wellington. He left by this gate for his last battle (1799) where he was defeated and slain. In grief at his loss the gate was blocked up and remains so still. The stabling ran along the inside of the north wall. The most strongly fortified is the eastern gate which is flanked by thick walls and commanded by three towers on the southern side. The four corners of the enclosure and the centre of its southern side are surmounted by bastions. A small temple is near the north-west gate, and a well near the temple of Gaṇapati was begun in 1779 by Paraśurām Bhāu and finished in 1799 by his son Āppā. It consists of an image-chamber and a hall of plain but finely worked stone. The image-chamber is 9.44 × 8.83 metres (thirty-one feet by twenty-nine feet) and the hall 13.71 × 10.36 metres (forty-five by thirty-four feet). The image-chamber has a spire 10.36 metres (thirty-four feet) high from the ground, flanked by smaller ones 2.43 metres (eight feet) shorter. These are all brick and rather tastefully decorated stucco. The hall consists of a nave with two aisles made by two rows of pillars with a 3.04 metres (ten feet) space between them. are shrines of the bull *nandī* and the man-eagle *Garūḍ* 6.40 metres (twenty-one feet) high including the pinnacles. They consist of open canopies 0.557 m^2 (six feet square) and crowned by pinnacles 2.43 metres (eight feet) high. The courtyard has a wall 3.04 metres (ten feet) high with a promenade on the top. The entrance to this courtyard contains the most striking object in the building, a gateway formed by a masonry arch surmounted by a tower of the form so frequent in Southern India and known as the *Gopūr*[1]. It is seven storeyed, gradually tapering till the top storey is a mere ridge. The outer ends curve towards one another like the hoods of the cobra; while at the centre is

Gaṇapati Temple.

[1]. The Gopur is a large and lofty pinnacle. Gopur at Gadag in Mysore State can be compared with this.

CHAPTER 19. Places. TASGAON. *Ganpati Temple.*

a pointed urn or *kalaś*. The lowest storey measures 11.27 metres (thirty-seven feet) from east to west. The whole is 29.08 metres (ninety-five feet and five inches) high, and the *kalaś* and curved arms are 0.17 metres (seven inches) higher. The lowest storey is of stone and the rest of brick covered with coloured stucco carved into images of gods and goddesses. On each side are stairs for ascending the *Gopūr* with opening in the centre of each storey. The top storey gives a capital bird's eye view of the surrounding country and of Tāsgāṅv itself. East of the *Gopūr* is another lower gateway and looking back the *Gopūr* appears to rise gradually behind the gateway, and looks much like a huge snake rearing its head above the entrance to the town. From top to the bottom images of various deities are laid on the *Gopūr*. The *Gopūr* is unrivalled in beauty and magnificence in this part of the country. Thousands of persons gather on the day of the *Gaṇeś Caturthī* festival.

History.

In 1730, Tāsgāṅv is mentioned as one of the villages which were ceded by Sambhājī, *Rājā* of Kolhāpūr to Śahū of Sātārā (1708)[1]. About 1758 the French scholar Anquetil du Perron notices Tāsgāṅv as a great walled town protected by towers and a ditch. The country round was pretty and tilled[2]. In the reign of the fourth *Peśvā* Mādhavarāv (1761-1772) Tāsgāṅv and its neighbourhood were taken from Kolhāpūr and added to the *Peśvā's* territory as *jāgirs* of the Paṭvardhans. In 1777 they were temporarily recovered by Kolhāpūr, but Mahādajī Śinde succeeded in preventing their permanent loss. Paraśurām Bhāu Paṭvardhan built a palace for himself and embellished his town, Tāsgāṅv, with care and labour for years and made it the permanent residence for his family. In June 1790 Major Price notices Tāsgāṅv as having recently risen to importance. The palace was a respectable if not a handsome structure and Paraśurām was trying to beautify the town. Near the palace was a neat temple of Gaṇapati[3]. In 1799 the Kolhāpūr forces attacked and pillaged Tāsgāṅv, then the capital of Paraśurām Bhāu's *jāgīr* and burnt his palace[4]. Paraśurām Bhāu on his part led a campaign of revenge against the Chatrapatis of Kolhāpūr in which he was defeated and killed. In 1827 Captain Clunes notices Tāsgāṅv as belonging to the Paṭvardhans with 1,610 houses, 266 shops and wells[5]. In 1848 the Tāsgāṅv territories lapsed to the British like so many other states during the period of Lord Dalhousie and hence Paṭvardhans of Tāsgāṅv became ordinary landlords. During the 1857 war of independence to overcome the southern Marāṭhā chiefs and to check the rising which it was thought might follow the annexation of the Paṭvardhan chief's territories on his decease without male issue, troops were stationed at Tāsgāṅv. No disturbance occurred and the troops returned at the beginning of the fair season of 1858.

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1 Grant Duff's *Marathas*, Vol. I., p. 375.

2 *Zend Avesta*, I, ccxxv.

3 *Memoirs of a Field Officer*, 193.

4 Grant Duff's *Marathas*, 547.

5 *Itinerary*, 33.

CHAPTER 19.

Places.

URAN-ISLAMPUR.

Uraṇ Islāmpūr, 17° 2′ north latitude and 70° 20′ east longitude, the headquarters of Vāḷvā *tāluka*, is a double name given to what are really two quarters of one large municipal town, 4.82 km (three miles) east of Peṭh. In 1961 its population was 20,817. It is situated on a slightly raised hard gravelly ground protruding from the black soil plain of the Kṛṣṇā valley. It being the most centrally situated place in Vāḷvā was made the headquarters and all the important offices were shifted here from Peṭh. The very name Islāmpūr suggests that the town was at one time under Musalmān occupation. Uraṇ, the oldest quarter, is on the east and contains little of note except the shrine, also called *maṭh* of Śambuāppa Koṣṭī. As noted above the two villages are now in fact two quarters of one and the same municipal town.

Islāmpūr, favourably situated for transport and communications, is daily growing in importance as a commercial centre. There are roads connecting it with Karhāḍ, Sāṅglī, Kolhāpūr and many of the important market places. Tākārī is the nearest railway station. The town has good many smaller grain and cloth merchants as also wholesalers in tobacco and grains and has a large community of weavers. Large quantities of tobacco, raw sugar and *gūḷ*, sugarcane being one of the important crops, are sent to Cipḷuṇ, Ratnāgirī etc., and in exchange salt, dates, betel-nuts, groceries, spices and metals are brought and sold at Islāmpūr and the surrounding villages. The land of the *tālukā* is extermely fertile and groundnut is also grown in abundance. There are two oil mills. On every Thursday and Sunday a bazar is held, the chief articles of trade being grain and cattle. The class of weavers is large and the declining weaving industry is getting encouragement as a result of government efforts to revitalise it. An industrial estate is soon going to be set up which will be one of the four such estates in Sāṅglī district, the other three being at Sāṅglī, Miraj and Tāsgāṅv.

In olden days the town had always been in difficulties for water which was supplied by two ponds, one on the north side of Uraṇ, a large well on the outskirts between the two quarters and a stone pond within the fort. These were dependent on scanty and precarious rainfall. To do away with this scarcity a water-works at Bahe, 8 km (five miles) from Islāmpūr on the banks of the Kṛṣṇā, was constructed at an approximate cost of Rs. 17,00,000. The town has now tap water-supply.

Islāmpūr has primary schools, two Montessoris, five high schools, of which one is technical, a training college and an Arts and Commerce college. Among the other public buildings and/or offices those of mamlatdār, pancāyat samiti, judicial magistrate and sub-judge, deputy superintendent of police, post and telegraph figure prominently. There are civil and veterinary dispensaries maintained by the Zillā Pariṣad, and four maternity homes which are privately run. Being a fairly large commercial centre there are branches of state co-operative bank, urban bank and the land mortgage bank.

Municipality.

Constitution.—Uraṇ-Islāmpūr municipality was established in 1852 and has an area of 33.33 km² (12.87 sq. miles) under its jurisdiction. The president elected by the councillors from amongst themselves is the administrative head.

Finance.—Municipal income in 1961-62 was Rs. 2,15,685, excluding a sum of Rs. 32,326 as due to extra-ordinary and debt heads. The income comprised municipal rates and taxes Rs. 1,74,130: income from municipal property and powers apart from taxation Rs. 10,980; grants and contributions Rs. 29,165 and miscellaneous Rs. 1,410. Expenditure during the same year was Rs. 2,09,295 excluding a sum of Rs. 24,439 being the expenditure due to extra-ordinary and debt heads. Expenditure comprised general administration and collection charges Rs. 13,898; public safety Rs. 11,162; public health and convenience Rs. 1,55,693; public instruction Rs. 100 and miscellaneous Rs. 28,442.

Markets and Buildings.—There is only one vegetable market with tin sheds and platforms in Ṭiḷak *cowk* provided by the municipality. The office premises over which the water reservoir is installed has cost the municipality Rs. 1,21,000. Besides it has also constructed a primary school building which has been rented to the Zillā Pariṣad.

Health and Sanitation.—In addition to the dispensaries noted in the foregoing pages there is a municipal allopathic dispensary. There is also a malaria eradication centre. The town has only surface drains. Recently a few sets of urinals have been constructed in some of the public squares.

Education.—Primary education is compulsory. It is entrusted to the Zillā Pariṣad.

Cremation and Burial places.—Cremation and burial grounds are maintained and used by the respective communities.

Amenities.—The town has two libraries, viz., *Sārvajanik Tālukā Vacanālaya* and *Śetkarī Mofat Vacanālaya*. Of these the first one receives an annual grant of Rs. 1,000 from the State Government. Open spaces have been set aside for parks and gardens and play-grounds by the municipality.

History.

Islāmpūr contains the residence of *Sardār* Anandrāv Mantrī. A girls' high school is conducted in the old *vāḍā* whereas in the new one the descendants of the Mantrī family reside. "It overlooks a pond and is surrounded by a brick wall and moat which probably formed the original Musalmān fort of Islāmpūr." To-day the wall lies amidst ruins and not a trace of the moat is seen.

The founder of the Mantrī family was Nārorām Raṅgrāv, a native of Kocre in Vengurlā in Ratnāgirī. In 1691 he became minister to Dhanājīrāv Jādhāv, a general of the Marāṭhā army. Seventeen years later (1708) Śāhū was making his return to Sātārā and Tārābāī, who was then in power, ordered the *senāpati* to oppose him. Dhanājī met him at Khed on the Bhīmā in

Pooṇā. Śāhū had but a small following and Dhanājī, a numerous and well appointed army which Śāhū felt there was no chance of passing. He accordingly negotiated with Nārorām[1], the *Divāṇ* to offer a night interview and actually entered Dhanājī's camp in disguise. The *Divāṇ* penetrated the disguise, but instead of betraying his prince he sent him back to his own camp and engaged to exert his influence with Dhanājīrāv to prevent a battle. On hearing the exhortations of his *Divāṇ*, who announced that Śāhū was the rightful sovereign, Dhanājī was anxious to give way but for an oath which Tārābāī had made him swear solemnly on rice and milk. The *Divāṇ* admitted that a battle must be fought, but suggested as a way out of the difficulty to have a sham fight and to fire off the muskets and cannons with blank cartridges. This satisfied the scruples of Dhanājī who fought his sham battle, met Śāhū, and was confirmed by him as *senāpati*. The news of this reached Tārābāī who, thereupon, fled to Kolhāpūr, and Śāhū took possession of Sātārā. After this differences developed between Dhanājī and Śāhū and Dhanājī (He died in June 1708) went south with the army. But Nārorām Raṅgrāv stayed behind and adhered to the *Rājā*, who rewarded him with the title of *Rājādnya* and a yearly allowance of 10,000 *hons*. In 1715, he was invested as *Mantrī* and was given some districts with the administration or *mutalik* of the *sardeśmukhī*, and *jāgīrs*, and *vatans*; the whole of the revenue *inām* quit-rents and *sardeś-mukhī* in Śegāṅv in Khānāpūr, Āsangānv and Pangaḍ in Sātārā, and in the Vāī sub-division the Nadgaundi claims over the following *sāṁmats* or sub-divisions Niṁb, Vāghoṭe, Koregāṅv, Jokhorā, and Jambulkhorā consisting of two per cent of the revenue and two *bighās* per *cāhur* of land, and on *izafat* or service tenure the village of Meṇavlī, including the *svarāj* and *inām* quit-rents, in the following forts, Santoṣgaḍ, Vardhangaḍ, Mohangaḍ, Kalyāṅgaḍ, Kamalgaḍ, Candangaḍ, Vandan-gaḍ, and Vairāṭgaḍ; as *saranjām* the *hukeri* contribution from Bāgṇī in Panda Tāsgāṅv and assignments of *mokāsā*, *kuttā* & c. in many other villages. This ancestor was a very religious man who founded a religious establishment in honour of Palkeśvar Mahādev at Sidapūr in Karhāḍ, as well as at Āsangāṅv in Sātārā in honour of Kamaleśvar and Bhīmāśaṅkar at Vāī, and built temples at his native village of Kocre, and gave much land to Brāhmaṇs. The *Rājā's* records were full of testimonies to his success. He died in 1747. His son Ghanaśyām was then invest-ed as *Mantrī* and Triṁbakrāv was given the *sardeśmukhī* and dues in Tuḷjāpūr and the Bālāghāt enjoyed by his father. His descendants now live in Bāgaṇī. Ghanaśyām had his *ināms* confirmed by the *Peśvā* Bāḷājī Bājīrāv, and in 1779 he built a temple at Bhilavaḍī in Tāsgāṅv and made a pilgrimage to Banāras, performing many charities and building temples and

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[1] *See* Sardesal, *N.H.M.* II., p 15, which mentions Naro Ram but does not refer to these details Naro Rangaray is probably the same as Naro Ram who was a Shenvi (a Saraswat Brahmin) and who later held the post of Manṭri under Shahu. *See* Duff I, 330.

rest-houses. He then became a *sanyāsi* or recluse and retired to Banāras dying in 1780. His son Raghunāthrāv succeeded him. He was born in 1743 and after many good deeds died in 1789. Jayvantrāv, his son, succeeded him and died in 1832.[1] Bājirāv the last *Peśvā* unjustly resumed much of his possessions. Raghunāthrāv Jayvant, was born in 1806 and was invested as *Mantri* by Pratāpsinh *Mahārāj* in 1832. His possessions were curtailed by the invalidation of his title to three villages in Beḷgānv by the Inām Commission. He bore a high reputation for justice, courage, and good service as *Mantrī* and died at Islāmpūr in 1874.

CHAPTER 19. Places. URAN-ISLAMPUR. History.

Objects. *Śambuāppā Koṣṭī Maṭh.*

Islāmpūr is noted for the shrine or *maṭh* of Śambhuāppā Koṣṭī a Hindū devotee of weaver caste, but who took a Musalmān saint by name Bāvā Phan as his spiritual guide and who lived at Mālgānv 9.65 km (six miles) north of Miraj and 57.93 km (36 miles) south-east of Islāmpūr. But the distance did not deter him from making a daily night trip to Mālgānv. He continued this for eight years at the end of which he broke down. The saint touched at his intense devotion offered to return with him and Śāmbuāppā then built the *dargāh* in honour of Bāvā Phan when he died and continued to perform devotions at the *dargāh* till his own reputation for sanctity increased. He is credited with the performance of several miraculous feats. One day while sitting rapt in religious contemplation he suddenly informed the bystanders that he had been invoked by a merchant to save his ship, that he had been in the spirit to the ship and had saved it. As proof of that he produced salt water from his bosom. Yet another trader journeying through the perilous Sahyādris met with a tiger but on his invoking Śambuāppā the tiger fled. It is further related that the Muslims objected to Śambuāppā, a Hindū, becoming a disciple of their *pīr*. They challenged him to prove his mission by reading the holy *Qurāṇ*. He called for a blank paper and read the whole *Qurāṇ* off it. Then the Hindūs felt like testing him and so a covered pot containing flesh was placed as an offering with the view of tempting him to eat flesh and thereby violate the chief title to sanctity among the Hindūs. But when he ordered the pot to be opened the flesh had vanished and in its stead *jasminum zambkac* or *mogrā* flowers blossomed. Yet this test was not deemed sufficient and hence some *jogis* or religious beggars becoming jealous of him threatened to kidnap him if he did not instantly satisfy their unexpressed desires. He within a moment's time, produced two hundred mangoes with bread and rice which turned out to be what they desired, this not withstanding that it was dark twelfth of *Māgh* (February-March) nearly two months in advance of the commencement of the mango season (April-May). In commemoration to this display of supernatural powers a charity dinner is given to all comers on that day. By the side of Bāvā Phan, the *samādhi* of Śambuāppā has also been erected. The whole stands in an enclosure, wherein there is also the mansion

1. In 1827 Captain Clunes mentions Uran-Islampur as a post-runner's station with 1,500 houses, fifteen shops, and twenty wells. *Itinerary*, 34.

*Old *Satara Gazetteer*, pp. 609-610.

CHAPTER 19. Places. URAN-ISLAMPUR. Objects. *Sambhuāppā Kosti Math.*

of the descendants of Śambhuāppā. The *dargāh* is housed in a square building with a dome and four of the usual cupolas. A fair in honour of Śambuāppā is held from the tenth to fifteenth of *Kāratika* or October-November and a temporary *maṇḍap* is erected in the courtyard. On this occasion those of the young who desire to enter the order of the disciples of Śambuāppā are initiated after performing the prescribed religious ceremonies.

Ambābāī Temple.

Ambābāī temple is near the bus stand and had an enclosure of which nothing now remains except the gate. Inside the entrance to the left is a *dīpmāḷ* and a basil plant to the right. It has a four pillared spacious *maṇḍap*. The lintel of the *gabhārā* is decorated with a finely carved image of Gaṇapati. It contains the idol of the goddess in whose honour a fair, attended by the local people, is held on the *Dasarā* day. The temple is a solid work in masonry and has a cellar.

Islampur had an old mosque which was rebuilt in 1939 and is known as Momin mosque. It has minarets surmounting the top and the entrance, and consists of two medium sized rectangular halls. The mosque has a well-built terrace.

VATEGAON.

Vaṭegāṅv (pop. 4,255) is a village in Vāḷvā *tālukā* lying 16 km (ten miles) west of Islāmpūr and 9.65 km (six miles) north-west of Peṭh. It was once an alienated village and was held by a Brāhmaṇ *Kamavisdār* under the Kurundvāḍ chief to whom it belonged. It has sprung up on either side of the Bhogavatī Gaṅgā, a stream, and has better roads and streets as compared to other villages of its size. It is connected with Islāmpūr and Peṭh by a good made road. There are a few traders trading in raw sugar and tobacco and other agricultural produce. Vaṭegāṅv has a primary school, a high school, two private dispensaries and a post office. Wells and the Bhogavatī Gaṅgā stream provide drinking water.

Objects. *Lakṣmī Nārāyaṇ Temple.*

In the western half, on the left bank of the stream there are two temples, one each dedicated to Lakṣmī Nārāyaṇ and Vaṭeśvar Mahādev. The original portions of the structures are of finely hewn stones and consist of an inner shrine or *gābhārā* about 0.2 m^2 (ten feet square) and dome roofed. The entrance is through an arch 0.914 metres (three feet) wide and 0.914 metres (three feet) thick. There is a 0.19 (three feet) wide cross passage and another similar door leading by one step into the outer hall, which is about 1.30 m^2 (14 feet square) cut off by oblique canopy like arches. The roof is also dome shaped and about 9.14 metres (30 feet) high, all of large stone. Two more steps lead into another *maṇḍap* with galleries of rough work and is used for delivering or reciting *purāṇas*. The idols of Lakṣmī and Nārāyaṇ are on a curious stand consisting of five upright blocks or slabs of highly polished stone each one broader than and ranged behind the other, the broadest being behind. The cuter corners of each are decorated with a carved pendant shaped like a ram's head. The *gābhārā* is crowned by a pyramid like pinnacle about 12.19

metres (40 ft.) high from the ground decorated with figures of gods and goddesses in relief, in cut stone instead of in brick. The four corners of the *gābhārā* and the inner *maṇḍap* have smaller pinnacles to march and there is also a central pinnacle to the inner *maṇḍap*. Except for a fine masonry wall built on the side of a stream, the court has nothing very significant. A noteworthy feature of the temple is the use of stone throughout, even for the internal domes and pinnacles. The effect internally is striking and the situation on the stream most picturesque. The original structure of the temple is said to have been built by one Raghopant Jośī who was a native of Vāṭegāṅv and who served as minister or *kārbhārī* to one of the subordinate chiefs of the Niṁbāḷkar family in the time of Nānā Faḍaṇavīs (1764-1800).

Vāṭeśvar Temple.

The Vāṭeśvar temple is an insignificant edifice of rough trap and mortar, but has a strictly pyramidal pinnacle about 12.19 metres (40 feet) high. The courtyard is approximately 9.29 m^2 (100 square feet) surrounded by ruined cloisters. The walls are of masonry about 4.21 metres (4 ft.) thick, of roughly cut rectangular blocks of trap each corner flanked with a small bastion. The wall on the southern side is now in bad repairs. A winding pavement with steps here and there leads to the entrance which is through an archway. The temple is beautifully situated at a sudden bend in the stream and behind it is a magnificent grove of tamarind trees. Though the name of the builder remains anonymous to date the temple is reported to be very antique.

VITE.

Viṭe, 17° 16′ n. latitude and 74° 35′ e. longitude 75.63 km (47 miles) south-east of Sātārā with in 1961 a population of 13,391 is the headquarters town of Khānāpūr *tālukā*. It is situated at the junction of the Guhāgar-Cipḷuṇ-Karhāḍ-Bijāpūr and Śiṅgṇāpūr-Belgāṅv roads 41.84 km (26 miles) east of Karhād and 28.96 km (18 miles) north of Tāsgāṅv with the Yerlā river 11.26 km (seven miles) to the west. The town lies in a slight depression, a bit of rolling ground dividing the Viṭā river from the Yerlā. 3.21 km (two miles) east is a rather more abrupt rise of about 60.96 metres (200 ft.) on the Khānāpūr plateau. The Vitā is a small stream which flows into the Yerlā at Bhalavṇī 11.26 km (seven miles) to the south-west. During summer it runs very dry.

Vīṭe has much historical significance. At one time the *Pratinidhi* of the Marāṭhā *Chatrapati* is said to have made it his residence. There is a *vāḍā* or a palace built by one Triṁbak Kṛṣṇa, who before coming to Viṭe was a *kārbhārī* or a manager of the Panhaḷgaḍ *Pratinidhi*. The palace has crumbled down and lies amidst ruins but yet the remains of the bastions and the defence fortifications, which have survived the test of time, point to the existence of the mansion. Inside the *vāḍā* there is a very big well. Triṁbakrāv Kṛṣṇa is said to have built the Triṁbakeśvar temple of the town, in front of which his memorial is also seen. The *Pratinidhiship* successively passed on to Bhavānrāv, Bhagvantrāv and Bhavānrāv again. Bhagvantrāv's and his wife's memorials are also seen by the side of Triṁbak Kṛṣṇa.

The town being centrally located and also on account of its being the headquarters of the *tālukā*, is an important centre of trade and commerce. The area from the māmlatdār's office up to the old water reservoir and from the town library to the *cāvaḍī* forms the chief commercial centre. On Mondays and Thursdays is held the weekly bazar which is attended by a large number of merchants coming not only from all over the *tālukā* but also from some of the prominent commercial centres of the district. The chief articles traded are jowar, *bājrī*, wheat, gram, *uḍid*, *tūr*, groundnut, chillis and turmeric. It is also an important market for the purchase of poultry and eggs. This bazar is held in an open space to the north-west of the municipal office. By far the most important feature of the town is its cattle market where well-bread and healthy cattle are displayed for sale, for which this part of Mahārāṣṭra is so well-known. It is held by the side of the road going to Māyaṇī. A cattle-shed and water facilities are also provided. The municipality has constructed a *dharmaśāḷā* close by.

It is fairly a good centre of weaving and about 1,500 koṣṭīs are engaged in this profession. There are over 400 looms working in the town but the trade is in doldrums due to the stiff competition of the mill-made cloth. To prevent the trade from vanishing altogether a co-operative society named as *Viṭe Viṇakar Sahakārī Maṇḍaḷī* Ltd., has been formed. The average annual output of saris is nearly 7,000 but the society is in difficulties of finding a good market for the goods produced.

The town has adequate educational facilities. There are nine primary schools, two high schools and an arts and commerce college. In 1932 was established the school of music, the only one of its kind in the *tālukā*. There are two libraries one of which is maintained by the town municipality, a gymnasium and a *vasatigṛha*. The civil dispensary of the town has an operation theatre and a maternity ward attached to it. It was set up at a cost of Rs. 1,25,000. There is also a veterinary dispensary.

The following is an extract taken from the old Gazetteer regarding the town as it was then: "The town has a wall about 6.09 metres (20 ft.) high of stone for the lower 3.04 metres (ten ft.) and upper 6.09 metres (ten ft.) mud, with gates on the east and west flanked by bastions. The sub-divisional offices are in the old native mansion built against the east wall with a gateway flanked by a strong wall. The Deśmukhs who live here used to be connected with Bhupāḷgaḍ fort 38.62 metres (24 miles) to the east."* The māmlatdār's office is now housed in a newly constructed building accommodating besides offices of the police sub-inspector, the sub-registrar and the magistrate. To the north of the māmlatdār's office is the civil court also in a new building. The town has also the offices of the P.W.D. and pancāyat samitī and a post office.

* Old Satara Gazetteer, pp. 609-10.

Viṭe receives an average annual rainfall of 558.8 mm (22 inches) only and hence it suffers from scarcity of water. Well irrigation is practically non-existent as there are no wells in the town holding a good deal of water throughout the year. The *ghāṭ* area of the Reṇavī mountain which is just 8 km (five miles) away, does receive more rainfall than Viṭe but the rain-water is drained by the stream flowing through the town. Till 1929 Viṭe had scarce drinking water-supply and its inhabitants had to go for miles together to fetch a pail of water. In that year with the help of one Mr. Pagson, whose services were employed by the then Government of Bombay State, the municipality tapped the source of the Dhangar stream, about 2 km (a mile and a quarter) away from the town. Soon with the help of government a reservoir was built and the waters were directly emptied into it by means of pipes. As the water-base is considerably at a higher level no mechanical device was required. But with the increasing population and the corresponding increase in demand the water-supply was found to be inadequate and hence a new project had to be envisaged. Near the stream flowing to the east of the town there was a small well where it is supposed, the elephants of the *Pratinidhī* were watered. This was converted into a bigger well and its waters received in a new reservoir and then distributed. Thus the water scarcity has been temporarily met.

Municipality.

Constitution.—The municipality at Viṭe was established in the year 1854 and has an area of 60.34 km² (21.3 sq. miles) under its jurisdiction. Administrative business is looked after by the president with the necessary assistants. He is elected by the councillors from among themselves.

Finance.—In 1961-62 the municipal income accrued from the various sources excluding extra-ordinary and debt heads amounted to Rs. 1,05,615. It comprised income from municipal rates and taxes Rs. 84,157 ; municipal property and powers apart from taxation Rs. 5,190; grants and contributions Rs. 15,745 ; and miscellaneous Rs. 523. During the same year the expenditure amounted to Rs. 1,00,844. It comprised general administration and collection charges Rs. 31,007 ; public safety Rs. 10,472 . public health and convenience Rs. 51,717 ; public instruction Rs. 4,885 and miscellaneous Rs. 2,764.

Health and Sanitation.—Viṭe enjoys a salubrious climate. The dispensaries (one civil and one veterinary) of the town are run by government. The drains are *puccā* stone-lined gutters as well as *kutcā* ones.

Education.—Primary education is compulsory and is looked after by the Zillā Pariṣad. Towards the primary education the annual municipal contribution comes to Rs. 9,000.

CHAPTER 19. Places. VITE. Municipality.

Cremation and Burial Places.—The cremation and burial places are maintained by the communities concerned. The Hindūs and the Muslims have their places on the western side of the town, the Liṅgāyats on the eastern side and the scheduled caste on the southern side.

Objects. *Temples.*

The town has quite a few temples, the most important ones being those of Bahiravnāth, Manmatheśvar, Revaṇ Siddh, Viṭhobā, Māruti, Gaṇapati, Dattātraya, Trimbakeśvar and a Jain basti. Śrī Bahiravnāth is the *grāmadaivat* or the village deity and this temple was recently re-built by collecting contributions and donations from the people. *Nāthāṣṭami* is celebrated with enthusiasm every year. Eight kilometres away there is yet another temple of Revaṇ Siddh. It is situated on top of a hill and is said to be the *mūla sthāna* of Revaṇ Siddh of Reṇāvī. The temple edifice is quite big, having a *nagārkhānā* on the eastern gate both of which are said to have been built by one Bhagvānrāv Jog Faḍṇis at his personal cost. A largely attended fair is held on the *Mahāśivrātra* day. This temple and the one at Reṇāvī being the same the fair is held simultaneously at both the places. Close by this temple there is a *maṭh* called Gumphā *Maṭh* said to have been built by one Agḍojī Buvā Nārāyaṇ Buvā Gosāvī. In addition, there are two more *maṭhs* belonging to the *Dāsnāmpanthis*. Those are named as Śrīguri Dharma *maṭh* and Bābā Caitanyapuri *maṭh alias* Nityānandpurī Gosāvī *maṭh*.

Mosques and dargāhs

Muslim places of worship include the Rajvelī *Pīr*, Naru Tambat *yanca* Nālsāheb, an *idgāh* and a mosque. There is only one church. The Rajveli *pīr* is situated near the bus stand along the Cipḷuṇ-Karhad-Bijāpūr road. It is related that in 1905 there was a horse keeper by name Bābāji Ghoḍevālā in the *māmlatdār kaceri*. One day this Bābāji beheld the *pīr* in a vision who showed him a particular spot and requested him to clear his grave. Bābāji disclosed this vision to his friends and many of them went to the spot to test it. To their great surprise they actually came across a grave on clearing the soil. Bābāji, thinking that there must be some divine power in it, began to worship it and many followed suit. Since then an *urūs* attended by a large number of persons is held.

Viṭe is by far the most important place in the *tālukā* in respect of transport and communications and hence has a thriving trade.

WALVA.

Vāḷvā, 17° 2′ north latitude and 74° 27′ east longitude is a village which gives its name to the *tālukā* in which it is situated lying on the right bank of the Kṛṣṇā 17.70 km (eleven miles) south-east of Peṭh and 11.26 km (seven miles) east of Islāmpūr, the latter of which is now the head-quarters town of the *tālukā*. The headquarter of the Vāḷvā sub-division was at one time at Vāḷvā and since its shifting to Islāmpūr the village has paled into insignificance. Near this village a feeder flows into the Kṛṣṇā river and on its banks and between it and the Kṛṣṇā there is some rocky rising ground on which the village is situated. But the eastern portion close to the river is much subject to flooding as also sometimes western

which is on the banks of the stream, of which a back-water runs when the Kṛṣṇā gets flooded. A new village site, a quarter of a mile west of the present site was accordingly granted to this village about 1876 after the great Kṛṣṇā floods of 1875. The people, however, did not take any advantage, owing perhaps to the distance of the new site from the Kṛṣṇā which is the major if not the only source of water-supply. However, now the Sāṅgli sanitary sub-division has been entrusted with the work of providing water to all the important villages of this *tālukā*. At the new site a well was sunk but the supply of water was found to be of poor quality and precarious in quantity. Vāḷvā has seven primary schools, a high school which has technical faculty also, two libraries, a post office and civil and veterinary dispensaries. A municipality was established at Vāḷvā but was abolished in 1873 owing to insufficient income. Vāḷvā had a population of 8,885 inhabitants in 1961. Except the mansion of the Thorāt family of *Deśmukhs* and the new school building the village has no other remarkable construction. The family first came into notice under Śāhū (1708-1749) and was confirmed in the *Deśmukhī* of villages extending up to Śirāḷā, besides receiving *saranjām* or military grants of several large and productive villages. The *deśmukhī* dated from the Musalmān times.

History.

In October 1659, Śivājī took Vāḷvā after capturing Śirāḷā. The Mohammedans had depopulated it. Rāmcandra Pant Amātya repopulated it about 1690, when he was invested with the command of Viśāḷgaḍ and Panhāḷā. In 1684 the district was occupied during the monsoon by a Moghal army under *Sultān* Muazzam who cantoned on the banks of the Kṛṣṇā river. It was then annexed by Sambhājī to Kolhāpūr and suffered greatly from the ravages of Udājī Cavan. The Pant Pratinidhi surprised the camp of Sambhājī and Udājī. Yaśvantrāv Thorāt was killed in the engagement and they were driven to Panhāḷā[1] with the loss of all their baggage. This first occasioned the cession to the Mārāṭha king of Vāḷvā district north of the Vārṇā and Śāhū then placed Vāḷvā under a *thāṇā* at Islāmpūr, and one Kusājī Bhosle[2] was given charge of it. The first noteworthy Thorāt was Bhosle's *Sarnobat*. The charge of the district given over to him by Bāḷājī Bājīrāv, the third *Peśvā* (1740-1761) and continued in the Thorāt family till the British annexation in 1818. In revenue statement of about 1790 *Vāḷvā* appears as the head of a *parganā* in the Rāybāg *Sarkār* with a revenue of Rs. 75,000[3].

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[1] Grant Duff's *Marathas*, Vol. I, p. 375.

[2] Illegitimately born to Shahu from Lakshmibai. He was granted the *jagir* of Sirol.

[3] Warring's *Marathas*, p. 244.

DIRECTORY OF VILLAGES AND TOWNS

EXPLANATION OF COLUMN HEADINGS, SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS USED

The names of towns and villages are arranged in alphabetical order for the whole of the district.

Column (1).—The names are given both in English and Deonagari. The English spelling is marked diacritically as under :—

ā-आ ; ī-ई ; ū-ऊ ; ṛ-ऋ ; c-च् ; ch-छ् ; ṭ-ट् ; ṭh-ठ ; ḍ-ड् ; ḍh-ढ ; ṇ-न् ; ñ-ञ ; ṅ-ङ ; ṇ-ण ; s-स् ; ś-श ; ṣ-ष ; ḷ-ळ्.

Abbreviations indicating tahsils—

Jth—Jath.
Kpr—Khanapur.
Mrj—Miraj.
Srl—Shirala.
Tsv—Tasaganv.
Wla—Walwa.

Column (2).—(*a*) direction and (*b*) travelling distance of the village from the tahsil headquarters. Abbreviations used showing direction from tahsil headquarters—

E—East.	NE—North-East.
W—West.	SE—South-East.
N—North.	NW—North-West.
S—South.	SW—South-West.

HQ—Headquarters.

Column (3).—(*a*) Area (Sq. miles) ; (*b*) Total population ; (*c*) Number of households; (*d*) Total number of agricultural population.

Column (4).—(*a*) Post office ; (*b*) Its distance from the village.

Column (5).—(*a*) Railway station ; (*b*) Its distance from the village.

Column (6).—(*a*) Weekly bazar ; (*b*) Bazar day ; (*c*) Distance of the bazar place from the village.

Column (7).(*a*) Nearest motor stand ; (*b*) Its distance from the village.

Column (8).—Drinking water facilities available in the village.

br—brook.	pl—pipe-line.
cl—canal.	spr—spring.
n—nalla.	str—stream.
o—scarcity of water.	t—tank.
p—pond.	W—big well.
rsr—reservoir.	w—small well.

Column (9).—Miscellaneous information about school, panchayat, co-operative society, temple, math, mosque, dargah, chavadi, gymnasium, library, dispensary, church and inscription—

Sl—school.	Cs—co-operative society.	(sp)—sale and purchase.	dh—dharamshala.
(h)—high.	(c)—credit.	(wvg)—weaving.	gym—gymnasium.
(m)—middle.	(fmg)—farming.	Fr—fair.	ch—chavadi.
(pr) primary.	(gr)—group.	tl—temple.	lib—library.
(tr-clg)—training college.	(i)—industrial.	m—math.	dp—dispensary
mun—municipality.	(con)—consumers.	mq—mosque.	(vet)—veterinary.
pyt—panchayat.	(mis)—miscellaneous.	dg—dargah.	Cch—Church.
	(mp)—multipurpose.		ins—inscription.

Months according to Hindu calendar—

Ct—Chaitra ; Vsk—Vaishakha ; Jt—Jaishtha ; Asd—Ashadha ; Srn—Shravana; Bdp—Bhadrapada ; An—Ashvina ; Kt—Kartika ; Mrg—Margashirsha ; Ps—Pausha ; Mg—Magha ; Phg—Phalguna ; Sud—Shuddha (first fortnight of the month); Vad—Vadya (second fortnight of the month).

N.B.—Figures for distance in columns (2), (4), (5), (6) and (7) are given in miles and furlongs.

Village Name.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists.	Post Office ; Distance.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Acakanahaḷḷī—Jth.—अचकनहळ्ळी	N; 3·0	8·3; 886; 155; 277	.. ..
Āgaḷagāṁv—Mrj.—आगळगांव ..	NE; 26·4	13·8; 3077; 528; 1269	Kavathe Mahankal; 3·0
Aitavaḍe Bk.—Wla.—ऐतवडे बु. ..	SW; 9·0	8·6; 4651; 871; 1761	Local; ..
Aitavaḍe Kh.—Wla.—ऐतवडे खु.	SW; 11·0	4·4; 3622; 723; 1489	Local; ..
Akalavāḍī—Jth.—अकलवाडी ..	E; 40·0	4·9; 379; 72; 282	.. ..
Ālakūḍ (M)—Mrj.—आलकूड (मि)	NE; 13·0	3·6; 715; 119; 240	Deshing; 3·0
Ālakūḍ (S)—Mrj.—आलकुड (सां)	NE; 34·0	6·1; 1244; 217; 634	Ranjani; 2·4
Aḷasund—Kpr.—अळसुद ..	SW; 7·1	10·2; 2245; 417; 799	Bhalvani; 3·0
Āḷate—Tsv.—आळते ..	N; 10·3	3·3; 1125; 203; 566	Tasgaon; 11·0
Āḷolī—Srl.—आळोली ..	NW; 43·0	1·3, 131; 27; 46	Arale; 22·0
Āmaṇāpūr—Tsv.—आमणापूर ..	W; 21·0	5·5, 3795; 657; 1452	Local; ..
Amarāpūr—Kpr.—अमरापूर ..	W; 10·0	4·9; 1624; 296; 784	Kadegaon; 4·0
Ambak—Kpr.—अंबक ..	SW; 21·0	3·8; 1798; 312; 903	Devrashtre; 3·0
Āmboḷe—Srl.—आंबोळे ..	NW; 45·0	2·4; 129; 32; 52	Arale; 22·0
Āndhaḷī—Tsv.—आंधळी ..	NW; 16·0	5·6; 1711; 310; 867	Palus; 3·0

Railway Station ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day.		Motor Stand ; Distance.		Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)		(6)		(7)		(8)	(9)
..	..	..	.. ..	..	1·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Siddheshvar Fr. last Mon. in Srn; 5tl; m.
Dhalgaon;	3·0	Dhalgaon;	3·0; Sun.	Stage;	1·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Yallama Fr. Mrg. Sud. 15; 5 tl; mq; 2 gym; ch; lib.
Takari;	19·0	Local;	.. Tue.	Ladegaon;	2·0	W;w.	6 Sl (5 pr, m); 4 Cs; Maruti Lanka Fr. Ct. Vad. 9; 7 tl; mq; 3 gym; ch; dp.
Takari;	22·0	Local;	.. Sun.	Stage;	1·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Bhairavnath Fr. Ct. Vad. 5; 10 tl; mq; gym; ch; 2 lib; dp.
..	..	..	.. ..	Umadi;	9·0	w;n.	Sl (pr); Hamje Urus Vsk. Sud. 11; 4 tl; mq; dg; ch.
Miraj;	14·0	Shirdhon;	4·0; Thu.	Deshing;	3·0	W;w.	Sl (pr), Datta Fr. Mg. Vad. 13; 2 tl; gym; ch; dp.
Kavathe Mahankal;	1·4	Ranjani;	2·4; Thu.	Stage;	0·4	w;n.	3 Sl (2 pr, m); Cs (c); 2 tl; mq; dg; dh; gym; ch.
Kirloskarvadi;	9·0	Vite;	7·0; Mon.	Local;	..	W;w.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); Cs (mp); Shama Maharaj Utsav Phg. Vad. 6, Nathdev Fr. Vad. 8; 19 tl; m; mq; dg; ch; 2 lib; dp (vet).
Bhilvadi;	10·0	Visapur;	5·0; Fri.	..	0·3	w;n.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Siddheshvar Fr. Ct. Vad. 8, 4 tl; gym; 2 lib.
Karad;	36·0	Pet-Lond;	1·0; Fri.	Arale;	21·0	w;w.	tl.
Kirloskarvadi;	3·0	Palus;	3·0; Tue.	Kirloskarvadi.	4·0	W;w; rv.	3 Sl (2 pr, m); Cs (c); 9 tl; m; 2 mq; dh; 3 gym; 3 lib; dp.
Karad;	10·0	Kadegaon;	4·0; Fri.	Stage;	0·2	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Ramabai Fr. Ct. Vad. 30; 6 tl; m; mq; gym; lib.
Takari;	6·0	Takari;	6·0; Mon.	Local;	..	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Ambabai Fr. An. Sud. 10; 5 tl; mq; dg; gym; ch; lib.
Karad;	38·0	Pet-Lond;	2·0; Fri.	Arale;	23·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kirloskarvadi;	6·0	Palus;	3·0; Tue.	Palus;	3·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); Siddheshvar Fr. Ct. Vad. 8; 3 tl; mq; gym; ch; lib.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office; Distance. (4)
Añjanī—Tsv.—अंजनी ..	E; 15·0	5·6; 2150; 402; 902	Savalaj; 2·0
Aṅkalagī—Jth.—अंकलगी ..	E; 24·0	19·9; 1920; 339; 919	.. ..
Aṅkalakop—Tsv.—अंकलकोप ..	W; 11·4	8·1; 5573; 955; 2006	Local; ..
Aṅkale—Jth.—अंकले ..	W; 16·0	8·3; 1542; 283; 738	.. ..
Ankalī—Mrj.—अकली ..	W; 7·0	1·7; 2396; 390; 562	Jayshingpur; 2·0
Antrāl—Jth.—अंत्राळ ..	N; 8·0	5·0; 783; 137; 199	.. ..
Antrī Bk.—Srl.—अंत्री बु. ..	NW; 5·0	2·8; 1368; 260; 617	Shirala; 5·0
Antrī Kh.—Srl.—अंत्री खु. ..	NW; 5·0	2·3; 928; 166; 435	Shirala; 6·4
Apaśiṅge—Kpr.—अपशिंगे ..	W; 17·4	2·1; 789; 148; 375	Kadegaon; 3·4
Ārag—Mrj.—आरग ..	SE; 12·0	24·4; 9585; 1747; 3728	Local; ..
Āruḷe—Srl.—आरळे ..	NW; 22·0	5·5; 2336; 454; 795	Local; ..
Āravaḍe—Tsv.—आरवडे ..	NE; 7·0	4·9; 2123; 334; 1054	Local; ..
Ārevāḍī—Mrj.—आरेवाडी ..	NE; 30·0	4·1; 1441; 258; 704	Kavathe Mahankal; 14·0

Railway Station; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)	(6)	(7).	(8)	(9)
Kavathe Mahankal; 15·0	Kavathe Mahankal; 9·0; Tue.	Local; ..	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; Yallamadevi Fr. Ps. Vad. 10; 7 tl; m; mq; dg; gym; ch; 2 lib.
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. 3·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (fmg); 7 tl; mq; dh; ch; lib.
Bhilvadi; 5·0	Bhilvadi; 1·0; Sun.	Local; ..	w;rv.	8 Sl (7 pr, h); 4 Cs (mp, c, 2 mis); Mhasoba Dev Fr. Ct. Sud. 7, Dattadev Fr. Mg. Vad. 5, 15 tl; 4 m; mq; 2 dh; gym; ch; 4 lib; 2 dp.
.. ..	.. .. ..	Dafalapur; 5·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; Siddhanath Dev Fr. Ct. Vad. 2; 4 tl; dg; gym.
Jayshingpur; 2·0	Sangli; 4·0; Sat.	Local; ..	w;rv.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs (2 mis); 3 tl; gym; 2 lib.
.. ..	.. .. ..	Jath; 8·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; ch.
Takari; 25·0	Shirala; 5·0; Mon.	Shirasi; 3·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, h); Cs (c); Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 1; 5 tl; 2 gym; 2 lib; dp.
Takari; 22·0	Shirala; 6·4; Mon.	Shirala; 5·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Jyotirling Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 4 tl; 2 gym; dp.
Karad; 6·0	Kadegaon; 3·4; Fri.	.. 3·4	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Jyotirling Fr. Ct. Vad. 6; 4 tl, mq; gym.
Local; 2·4	Local; .. Thu.	Stage; ..	W;w.	6 Sl (5 pr, h); Cs (c); Yallama Fr. Mg. Sud. 5; 5 tl; m; mq; dg; dh; gym; ch; lib; 3 dp.
Takari; 46·0	Local; .. Sat.	Stage; ..	w;rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (c); Ambabai Fr. Ps. Sud. 15; 4 tl; gym, lib; 3 dp.
Bhilvadi; 14·0	Manjarde; 3·0; Tue.	.. 1·4	W;w.	2 Sl (pr); 3 Cs; Siddheshvar Fr. Ct. Vad. 8; 6 tl; m; 2 mq; dg; gym; ch; 2 lib.
Dhalgaon; 2·0	Dhalgaon; 2·0; Sun.	.. ..	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; Sakubai Fr. Srn. Sud. 15, Viroba Dev Fr. Ct. Sud. 6-7; 10 tl; gym; ch; lib.

Village Name. (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office ; Distance. (4)
Āsad—Kpr.—आसद ..	SW; 16·0	2·9; 1097; 201; 501	Chinchani; 2·0
Āsaṅgījat—Jth.—आसंगीजत ..	E; 16·0	6·0; 1461; 284; 576	Jath; 17·0
Āsaṅgī Karajagī—Jth.—आसंगी करजगी.	SE; 26·0	16·1; 2269; 385; 695	.. ..
Āṣṭe (Urban Area II)—Wla.—आष्टे (नागरी विभाग २).	SE; 12·2	32·5; 14390; 2665; 5054	Local; ..
Āṣṭe (Non-Municipal Area)—Wla.—आष्टे (बिगरनागरी विभाग).	SE; 12·0	11·0; 34·29 583; 1543	Asnte (Municipal Area); ..
Āṭapāḍī—Kpr.—आटपाडी ..	NE; 39·0	53·7; 10968; 2017; 3676	Local; ..
Auṇḍhī—Srl.—औंढी ..	N; 2·4	2·2; 542; 94; 275	Shirala; 3·0
Āvaḷāī—Kpr.—आवळाई ..	NE; 48·0	7·1; 954; 155; 356	Dighanchi; 3·0
Āvandī—Jth.—आवंदी ..	N; 13·0	8·8; 1538; 251; 638	.. ..
Bāgaṇī—Wla.—बागणी ..	SE; 15·0	8·6; 6623; 1184; 2509	Local ; ..
Bāgevāḍī—Jth.—बागेवाडी ..	W; 6·0	5·0; 842; 146; 503	Jath ; 7·0
Bahāddaravāḍī—Wla.—बहाद्दरवाडी	SE ; 10·0	3·3; 3136; 527; 1251	Local ; ..
Bahe—Wla.—बहे ..	N; 5·0	7·3; 3546; 602; 1214	Local ; ..

Railway Station ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day.		Motor Stand; Distnce.		Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)		(6)		(7)		(8)	(9)
Takrai;	2·0	Chinchani;	2·0; Sun.	Chinchani;	2·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Chaundai Devi Fr. Ct. Vad. 12; 2 tl; mq; dh; 2 gym.
Jath Road;	20·0	Local;	.. Wed.	..	0·½	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; Hanuman Jayanti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 5 tl; mq.
..	..	..	.. ..	..	7·0	W;n.	4 Sl (pr); 2 Cs; 9 tl; 2 mq; dg; lib.
Sangli;	12·0	Local;	.. Mon; Fri.	Local;	..	W.	11 Sl (7 pr, m, 2 h, clg); 11 Cs; Bhavae Fr. Ct. Vad. 30; 25 tl; 2 m; mq; dg; 3 dh; 4 gym; ch; 2 lib; 7 dp; Cch.
Sangli;	12·0	Local;	.. Mon; Fri.	Local;	..	..	7 Sl (pr, 3 m, 2 h, clg); 3 Cs; 9 tl; m; mq; dh; 3 gym; lib.
Sangola;	14·0	Local;	.. Sat.	Local;	..	W;w.	4 Sl (3 pr, h); 9 Cs (9 mis;) Mahadev Fr. Kt. Sud. 15; 9 tl; mq; dh; gym; ch; lib; 3 dp.
Takari;	23·0	Shirala;	3·0; Mon.	Shirala;	2·4	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Maruti Fr. Ct. Vad. 3; 4 tl; dh; lib.
Sangola;	16·0	Dighanchi;	3·0; Sun.	Vithalpur;	2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Mariai Fr. Vsk. Sud. 15; 6 tl; mq; lib.
..	..	..	.. ..	Shegaon;	5·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 2 tl; m; mq; dh; ch.
Sangli;	15·0	Local;	.. Wed.	Local;	..	W;w.	3 Sl (2 pr, h,); Cs (c); Pir Urus Mg; 5 tl; 9 mq; 2 dg; gym; lib; 3dp.
Dhalgaon;	4·0	Jath;	7·0; Tue.	..	1·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Siddhanath Fr. An. Sud. 10, Murasiddha Fr. Ct. Vad. 30; 2 tl; mq.
Sangli;	20·0	Tandulvaai;	2·0; Tue.	Stage;	..	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m) 3 Cs (c); Pir Urus Mg. Vad. 3; 6 tl; m; 2 mq; 2 gym.
Bhavani Nagar;	4·0	Uran Islampur;	5·0; Sun; Thu.	Local;	..	w;rv.	5 Sl (4 pr, h); Cs (c); Shri Ram Fr. Ps. Vad. 30; 5 tl; m; mq; dg; gym; ch; lib.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office; Distance. (4)
Bāj—Jth.—बाज ..	W; 14·0	10·3; 2414; 402; 1319	.. ..
Bālagāṅv—Jth.—बालगांव ..	NE; 35·0	7·0; 1622; 305; 721	Umadi; 4·0
Balagavaḍe—Tsv.—बलगवडे ..	NE; 9·0	3·2; 1516; 266; 739	Aravade; 3·0
Balavaḍī Bhāḷavaṇī—Kpr.—बलवडी भाळवणी ..	SW; 10·0	5·9; 1923; 340; 897	Kundal; 4·0
Balavaḍī Khānāpūr—Kpr.—बलवडी खानापूर ..	E; 16·0	12·3; 2347; 447; 1040	Khanapur; 2·0
Bāmaṇī—Kpr.—बामणी ..	SE; 9·0	4·6; 1308; 251; 623	Pare; 2·0
Bāmaṇī—Mrj.—बामणी ..	W; 5·0	1·7; 274; 34; 84	Miraj; 3·0
Bāmbavaḍe—Srl.—बांबवडे ..	N; 11·0	3·0; 908; 159; 340	Vategaon; 2·0
Bāmbavaḍe—Tsv.—बांबवडे ..	NW; 10·0	5·1; 3214; 543; 945	Local; ..
Banāḷī—Jth.—बनाळी ..	N; 6·0	8·7; 1727; 330; 753	.. ..
Banapurī—Kpr.—बनपुरी ..	NE; 30·5	12·3; 2050; 384; 670	Karagani; 3·0
Bāṇūr—Kpr.—बाणूर ..	SE; 26·0	4·4; 936; 158; 438	Karagani; 4·0
Basargī—Jth.—बसर्गी ..	S; 11·0	5·5; 1129; 186; 518	Billur; 2·0
Bastavaḍe—Tsv.—बस्तवडे ..	NE; 11·0	6·0; 1857; 313; 834	Aravade; 3·0

Railway Station; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day.		Motor Stand; Distance.		Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)		(6)		(7)		(8)	(9)
..	..	..	.. ..	Dafalapur;	·4·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (c); 3 tl; mq; ch.
Nimbal;	25·0	Umadi;	4·0; Sun.	Umadi;	6·0	W;rv; n.	Sl (pr); Alama Prabhu Fr. Srn. last Mon; 4 tl; m; mq; dh; ch; dp.
Bhilvadi;	17·0	Local;	.. Fri.	..	3·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Siddheshvar Fr. Ct. Vad. 9; 4 tl; mq; gym; ch; lib.
Kirloskarvadi	7·0	Kundal;	4·0; Sun.	Local;	..	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); Nath Fr. Ct. Vad. 8; 3 tl; mq; ch; 2 lib.
Dhalgaon;	20·0	Khanapur;	2·0; Fri.	Khanapur;	2·0	W;w; rv.	2 Sl (pr); pyt; Cs (c), Bhavani Fr. last Mon. of Srn; 5 tl; m; dh; gym; dp.
Kirloskarvadi;	13·0	Vite;	6·0; Mon.	..	4·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 11 tl; m; mq; gym; lib.
Miraj;	3·0	Miraj;	3·0; Tue.	..	2·0	W;rv.	tl.
Karad;	18·0	Kasegaon;	5·0; Wed.	..	0·4	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Jyotirling Fr. Ct. Sud. 15, Hanuman Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 3 tl; dh; gym; lib.
Kirloskarvadi;	5·0	Palus;	.. Tue.	Stage;	1·2	W;w.	3 Sl (2 pr, h); Cs (c); 7 tl; mq; dh; gym; ch; lib.
..	..	..	.. ..	Local;	..	W;w.	5 Sl (pr); Cs; Ban Shankari Fr. An. Sud. 8; 6 tl; dg.
Sangola;	21·0	Karagani;	3·0; Fri.	..	2·2	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); pyt; Cs (mp, mis); Mhasoba Fr. Ct. Sud. 3, 4; 7 tl; mq; dh; ch.
Dhalgaon;	8·0	Karagani;	4·0; Sun.	Palashi;	5·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr); pyt; Cs (c); Baneshvar Fr. Ct. Sud. 12; 3 tl.
Dhalgaon;	18·0	Billur;	2·0; ..	Billur;	3·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Hucheshvar Fr. Srn; 6 tl; m; mq; dh.
Bhilvadi;	16·0	Manjarde;	.. Tue.	Khujagaon;	1·0	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs (mp); Pir Urus Ct. Sud. 4, Yallama devi Fr. Ps. Vad. 15; 5 tl; m; mq; dh; gym.

Village Name.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists.	Post Office ; Distance.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Bāvacī—Wla.– बावची ..	SE ; 9·0	6·8; 4353; 736; 1615	Local ; ..
Beḍag—Mrj.—बेडग ..	SE ; 7·0	18·3; 8095; 1408; 3111	Local ; ..
Beladāravāḍī—Srl.—बेलदारवाडी ..	N ; 3·0	0·7; 285; 57; 79	Shirala ; 3·0
Belavaḍe—Kpr.—बेलवडे ..	N ; 17·0	2·0; 691; 114; 387	Kadegaon ; 6·0
Beloṇḍagī—Jth.—बेळोडगी ..	NE ; 33·0	8·9; 1088; 175; 467	.. ..
Belūṇkhī—Jth.—बेळूंखी ..	W ; 13·0	6·8; 1372; 248; 752	Dafalapur ; 3·0
Belūṇkī—Mrj.—बेळूंकी ..	E ; 18·0	18·1; 5285; 954; 2154	Local ; 1·4
Beṇāpūr—Kpr.—बेणापूर ..	E ; 15·0	5·4; 1162; 202; 440	Khanapur ; 2·0
Bendrī—Tav.—बेंद्री ..	S ; 2·4	1·5; 677; 96; 266	Tasgaon ; 2·4
Bevaṇūr—Jth.—बेवणूर ..	NW ; 21·0	11·8; 1514; 276; 746	.. ..
Bhaḍakimbe—Wla.—भडकिंबे ..	SE ; 11·0	2·9; 1310; 243; 523	Bahadurvadi; 1·0
Bhākūcī Vāḍī—Kpr.—भाकूची वाडी	N ; 6·4	3·1; 744; 125; 409	Vite ; 7·0

Railway Station ; Distance. (5)		Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day. (6)		Motor Stand ; Distance. (7)		Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
Sangli;	15·0	Local;	.. Tue.	Stage;	0·6	W;w.	7 Sl (3 pr, 2m, 2h); 3 Cs (3 c); Pir Urus Ps. Sud. 15, Hanuman Lanka Fr. Ct. Vad. 30; 9 tl; mq; dg; 2 gym; ch; lib; dp.
Miraj;	6·0	Miraj;	6·0; Wed.	Local;	..	W;w.	8 Sl (6 pr, 2 m); 2 Cs (mp, mis); Margubai Devi Fr. Ct. Sud. 4; 4 tl; mq; gym; ch; 2 lib; 2 dp.
Takari;	23·0	Shirala;	3·0; Mon.	Shirala;	3·0	W.	Sl (pr); Hanuman Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; tl.
Karad;	10·0	Kadegaon;	6·0; Fri.	Stage;	..	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (fmg); Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 6 tl; dg; gym.
..	..	..	.. ..	Utagi;	6·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; Malkar Siddha Fr. Ct. Sud. 5; 3 tl; m; 2 mq.
Kavala Road;	10·0	Dafalapur;	2·0; Thu.	Dafalapur;	2·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Sadanand Dev Fr. Ct. Vad. 12; 3 tl; dg; ch.
Local;	1·4	Salgare;	6·0; Mon.	Arag;	9·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr); pyt; 2 Cs (2 c); Yallamadevi Fr. Mrg. Vad. 9; 4 tl; gym; 2 lib; 2 dp.
Dhalgaon;	18·0	Khanapur;	2.0; Fri.	Stage;	1·0	W;w; rv.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs (mp, mis); Siddheshvar Fr. Srn. Vad. 30, Maruti Fr. Ct. Vad. 6; 5 tl; dg; gym; lib.
Nandre;	3·0	Tasgaon;	2·4; Mon.	Tasgaon;	2·4	n.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; lib.
..	..	..	.. ..	Valekhindi;	7·0	W;w; n.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Mhasoba Fr. Phg. Vad. 5; 3 tl; mq; ch.
Sangli;	18·0	Tandulvadi;	3·0; Tue.	Stage;	..	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs. (c); Maruti Lanka Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 2 tl; gym.
Kirloskarvadi;	23·0	Vite;	7·0; Mon.	Nagevadi;	2·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Nath Fr. Ct. Vad. 8; 2 tl; dh; gym.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office; Distance. (4)
Bhāḷavaṇī—Kpr.—भाळवणी ..	SW; 7·0	9·9; 3447; 614; 1428	Local; ..
Bhāmbarḍe —Kpr.—भांबर्डे ..	NE; 3·0	2·8; 582; 103; 310	Vite; 3·0
Bhāṭaśiragānv—Srl.—भाटशिरगांव	S; 2·4	2·6; 936; 169; 434	Shirala; 3·0
Bhaṭavāḍī—Srl.—भटवाडी ..	N; 4·0	1·2; 309; 63; 170	Shirala; 3·0
Bheṇḍavaḍe—Kpr.—भेंडवडे ..	N; 6·4	5·0; 1212; 225; 628	Vite; 7·0
Bhikavaḍī Bk.—Kpr.—भिकवडी बु.	NE; 14·0	7·0; 1293; 242; 729	Vejegaon; 3·0
Bhikavaḍī Kh.—Kpr.—भिकवडी खु.	NW; 8·0	3·1; 1159; 199; 553	Local; ..
Bhilavaḍī—Tsv.—भिलवडी ..	SW; 11·0	17·5; 12184; 2190; 3766	Local; ..
Bhivargī—Jtn.—भिवर्गी ..	E; 32·0	10·3; 1104; 189; 424	Umadi; 15·0
Bhogīv—Srl.—भोगीव ..	NW; 44·0	3·0; 106; 32; 44	Arale; 22·0
Bhose—Mrj.—भोसे ..	N; 11·0	10·7; 4288; 772; 1613	Local; ..
Bhūḍ—Kpr.—भूड ..	NE; 12·0	5·8; 1242; 241; 327	Lengare; 2·0
Bicūd—Wla.—बिचूद ..	N; 7·0	2·5; 2303; 476; 673	Local; ..
Biḷāśī—Srl.—बिळाशी ..	W; 10·0	6·0; 3577; 674; 1531	Local; ..

Railway Station; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Kirloskarvadi; 8·0	Vangi; 3·0; Fri.	Shirgaon; 2·0	w;w; n.	5 Sl (3 pr, m, h); Cs (c); Pri Urus Ct. Sud. 5, Ramnavami Fr. Ct. Sud. 9; 8 tl; m; 2 mq; dg; dh; gym; ch; 2 lib; dp.
Kirloskarvadi; 15·0	Vite; 3·0; Mon.	Stage; ..	W;w; n.	Sl (pr); 5 tl; lib.
Takari; 24·0	Shirala; 3·0; Mon.	Shirala; 2·4	w;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 3 tl; gym.
Takari; 23·0	Shirala; 3·0; Mon.	Shirala; 4·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Bahiroba Fr. Ct. Sud. 1; tl.
Kirloskarvadi; 23·0	Vite; 7·0; Mon.	Khanapur; 6·4	W;w. n.	Sl (pr); Cs (gr); 5 tl; mq; dh; gym; lib.
Kirloskarvadi; 28·0	Kaledhon; 3·0; Tue.	Mayni; 3·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Davalmalik Fr. Phg. Vad. 10; tl; mq; dg; dh; gym; lib.
Karad; 14·0	Vite; 6·0; Mon.	Stage; 1·4	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (c); Nath Fr. Ct. Sud. 1; 6 tl; gym; 2 lib; dp.
Local; 3·	Local; .. Sun.	Stage; ..	w;rv.	10 Sl (9 pr, m); 7 Cs; 9 tl; 3 m; 2 mq; 2 dg; gym; ch; lib; 4 dp.
Minchnal; 18·0	Sankh; 4·0; Mon.	Sankh; 4·0	..	2 Sl (pr); Cs; Belansiddha Fr. An. Vad. 30 and Kt. Sud. 1; 2 tl; mq.
Karad; 40·0	Pet Lond; 2·0; Fri.	Arale; 22·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Miraj; 10·0	Local; .. Sun.	Local; ..	W;w.	3 Sl (2 pr, m); 2 Cs (mp, mis); Yallama Fr. Ps. Vad. 10; 3 tl; gym; ch; lib; dp.
Karad; 57·0	Lengare; 2·0; Sat.	Stage; ..	str;n; n.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); Nath Fr. Ct. Vad. 9; 4 tl; m; mq; dg; gym; lib.
Bhavani Nagar ..	Local; .. Fri.	.. ..	w;rv.	3 Sl (2 pr, m); Cs; Ganesh Utsav Bdp. Sud. 14; 6tl; mq; gym; lib; 4 dp.
Takari; 31·0	Local; .. Sun.	Stage; ..	w;rv; n.	3 Sl (2 pr, m); 2 Cs; Kusai Devi Fr. An. Sud. 10, Bhairavnath Fr. Ct. Vad. 5; 6 tl; mq; gym; ch; lib; dp.

Village Name. (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office ; Distance. (4)
Billūr—Jth.—बिल्लूर ..	S ; 8·0	26·7; 5298; 957; 2002	Local ; ..
Biranāḷ—Jth.—बिरनाळ ..	NW ; 6·0	3·6; 724; 125; 310	Jath ; 5·0
Bisūr—Mrj.—बिसूर ..	NW ; 9·0	3·4; 2630; 439; 1061	Budhagaon ; 2·0
Biur—Srl.- बिऊर ..	W ; 3·0	3·4; 1267; 237; 659	Shirala ; 2·0
Bobalād Jāḍra—Jth.—बोबलाद जाड्र	NE ; 24·0	16·2; 2889; 465; 1364	Chadchapan ; 18·0
Bobalād Kontyāvā—Jth.—बोबलाद कोंत्यावा.	SE ; 40·0	16·2; 2233; 410; 1136	Bijapur ; 12·0
Bolavāḍ—Mrj —बोलवाड ..	E ; 2·6	2·0; 1125; 182; 409	Miraj ; 3·0
Bombevāḍī—Kpr.—बोंबेवाडी ..	NE; 45·0	6·1; 639; 112; 236	Atpadi ; 5·0
Boragāṅv—Mrj.—बोरगांव ..	E ; 18·0	6·7; 1726; 306; 661	Shirdhon ; 2·0
Boragāṅv—Tsv.—बोरगांव ..	NW ; 8·0	9·2; 2649; 472; 1327	Local ; ..
Boragāṅv—Wla.—बोरगांव ..	NE ; 5·0	10·2; 6485; 1145; 2451	Local ; ..
Borgī Bk.—Jth.—बोर्गी बु. ..	E ; 32·0	3·3; 653; 123; 290	.. ..
Borgī Kh.—Jth.—बोर्गी खु. ..	E ; 32·0	1·9; 736; 150; 495	.. ..
Bramhanāḷ—Tsv.—ब्रम्हनाळ ..	SW ; 10·0	1·3; 1632; 282; 648	Bhilvadi ; 4·0

Railway Station ; Distance.	Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day.	Motor Stand ; Distance.	Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Kavathe-Mahankal; 18·0	Local; .. Fri.	Local; ..	W;w.	5 Sl (3 pr, 2 m); [illegible]; Cs (c); Basaveshvar Fr. Vsk. Sud. 15, Bhairavnath Fr. Mg. Sud. 15; 5 tl; m; 2 mq; 2 gym; lib.
Jath Road; 4·0	Jath; 5·0; Tue.	.. 0·1	W;w.	Sl (pr); Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 2 tl; mq.
Madhavnagar; 3·0	Budhagaon; 2·0; Sun.	Budhagaon; 2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Datta Fr. Mg. Vad. 5; 2 tl; mq; gym; lib.
Takari; 23·0	Shirala; 2·0; Mon.	Stage; 0·2	W;w; rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 3; 3 tl; gym.
Javale; 21·0	Local; .. Thu.	Local; ..	W.	2 Sl (pr); 2 Cs (wvg, mp); 6 tl; m; mq; ch; lib.
Bijapur; 12·0	Bijapur; 12·0; Sun.	6·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr); Cs (c); Hanuman Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 3 tl; m; mq; dg.
Local; 1·4	Miraj; 3·0; Tue.	Miraj; 2·6	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs; Moti Pir Urus Mg; 2 tl; mq; ch; lib.
Sangola; 12·0	Atpadi; 5·0; Sat.	Atpadi; 6·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Laxmi Fr. Srn. Sud. 15; 3 tl; lib.
Kavathe Mahankal; 10·0	Shirdhon; 2·0; Tue.	Stage; 0·4	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (c); Yallama Fr. Ps; 3 tl; mq; ch.
Bhilvadi; 10·0	Palus; 5·0; Tue.	Local; ..	n.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Siddheshvar Fr. Ct. Vad. 8; 8 tl; mq; 2 gym; ch; 2 lib.
Takari; 4·0	Local; .. Fri.	Local; ..	w;rv.	6 Sl (5 pr, m); 7 Cs; Biroba Fr. Ct. Sud. 1; 12 tl; m; mq; 3 gym; ch; lib.
.. ..	.. .. ..	Utagi; 9·0	w;rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); Yallama Devi Fr. Ps. Sud. 15; 4 tl, lib.
.. ..	.. .. ..	Utagi; [illegible]	w;rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); Yallama Fr. Mrg. Sud. [illegible] tl; mq; dg; ch; lib.
Bhilvadi; 4·0	Sangli; 8·0; Sat.	.. ..	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Mahashivratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 14; 4 tl; m; lib.

Village Name.	Direction; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists.	Post Office; Distance.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Budhagānv—Mrj.—बुधगांव ..	NW; 7·0	4·4; 6789; 1270; 1080	Local; ..
Burlī—Tsv.—बुर्ली ..	W; 21·0	5·7; 5568; 1013; 1149	Local; ..
Cāndolī Bk.—Srl.—चांदोली बु. ..	NW; 25·0	4·5; 518; 108; 300	Arale; 4·0
Cāndolī Kh.—Srl.—चांदोली खु. ..	W; 52·0	4·5; 85; 24; 33	Arale; 26.[illegible]
Caraṇ—Srl.—चरण ..	NW; 16·0	3·4; 1944; 359; 755	Local; .
Cikhalagothaṇ—Tsv.—चिखलगोठण	NW; 12·3	3·0; 975; 154; 624	Tasgaon; 13·0
Cikhalahol—Kpr.—चिखलहोळ ..	NW; 7·0	4·3; 1209; 239; 576	Mahuli; 2·0
Cikhalī—Kpr.—चिखली ..	NW; 11·0	2·4; 1079; 189; 551	Kadepur; 1·0
Cikhalī—Srl.—चिखली ..	SW; [illegible]·0	2·0; 955; 192; 328	Shirala; 6·0
Cikurḍe—Wln.—चिकुर्डे ..	SW; 12·0	6·9; 4790; 913; 1865	Local; ..
Cincāḷe—Kpr.—चिंचाळे ..	NE; 25·0	7·2; 688; 132; 256	Kharsundi; 1·4
Cincaṇī—Tsv.—चिंचणी ..	E; 3·0	11·3; 5181; 910; 2376	Local; ..
Cincaṇī Tāsagānv—Kpr.—चिंचणी तासगांव	S; 5·0	2·7; 1356; 260; 637	Vite; 5·[illegible]
Cincaṇivāngī—Kpr.—चिंचणीवांगी	SW; 21·0	8·8; 2594; 486; 972	Local; ..

Railway Station; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Madhavnagar; 1·0	Local; .. Sun.	Local; ..	w;pl.	4 Sl (3 pr, h); 2 Cs (c); Siddheshvar Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 4 tl; 2 mq; dh; gym; ch; lib; 3 dp.
Kirloskarvadi; 3·0	Palus; 3·0; Tue.	Kirloskarvadi; 3·0	w;rv.	5 Sl (4 pr, h); 4 Cs (c); Pir Urus Mg. Sud. 13; 14 tl; m; 3 mq; gym; 3 lib; 5 dp.
Takari; 50·0	Arale; 4·0; Sat.	Arale; 4·0	rv.	Sl(pr); Janai Fr. Phg. Vad. 6; tl.
Karad; 50·0	Pet-Lond; 7·0; Fri.	Arale; 30·0	str.	Sl (pr); tl.
Takari; 36·0	Local; .. Thu.	Local; ..	w;rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (c); Gajanan dev Fr. Mrg. Vad. 11; 6 tl; mq; dg; 2 gym; ch; lib; 2 dp.
Kirloskarvadi; 9·0	Palus; 7·0; Tue.	.. 2·6	W;w.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs (c); 2 tl; dh; gym; 2 lib.
Kirloskarvadi; 22·0	Chitali; 3·0; Thu.	.. 1·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; Nath Fr. Srn. on Third Mon; 5 tl; mq; dg; gym; lib.
Karad; 16·0	Kadegaon; 3·0; Fri.	.. 1·4	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Devi Fr. Ct. Vad. 8; 4 tl; gym; lib.
Takari; 26·0	Shirala; 6·0; Mon.	Shirala; 3·0	w;n.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Maruti Fr. Mg. Vad. 13; 3 tl; gym.
Takari; 22·0	Local; .. Fri.	Stage; ..	W;w.	3 Sl (2 pr, h); 3 Cs; Vithoba Fr. Ct. Sud. 5, Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 4; 3 tl; m; 2 mq; dg; 2 gym; ch; 4 dp.
Dhalgaon, 20·0	Kharsundi; 1·4; Sun.	Stage; ..	str.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; mq.
Bhilvadi; 10·0	Tasgaon; 3·0; Mon.	Local; ..	w;n.	3 Sl (2 pr, h); pyt; Cs (mp); Yallamadevi Fr. Ps. Vad. 13; 14 tl; mq; 2 dg; dh; 2 gym; ch; 3 lib; 2 dp.
Kirloskarvadi; 13·0	Vite; 5·0; Mon.	..	W;w.	Nath Fr. Ct. Vad. 8.
Bhavani Nagar; 4·0	Local; .. Sun.	Sonakire; 1·0	W;w.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); Cs (c); Pir. Urus Phg. Sud. 10; 8 tl; m; mq; dg; gym; ch; lib.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office; Distance. (4)
Billūr—Jth.—बिल्लूर ..	S; 8·0	26·7; 5298; 957; 2002	Local; ..
Biranāḷ—Jth.—बिरनाळ ..	NW; 6·0	3·6; 724; 125; 310	Jath; 5·0
Bisūr—Mrj.—बिसूर ..	NW; 9·0	3·4; 2630; 439; 1061	Budhagaon; 2·0
Biur—Srl.—बिऊर ..	W; 3·0	3·4; 1267; 237; 659	Shirala; 2·0
Bobalād Jāḍra—Jth.—बोबलाद जाड्र	NE; 24·0	16·2; 2889; 465; 1364	Chadchapan; 18·0
Bobalād Kontyāvā—Jth.—बोबलाद कोंत्यावा.	SE; 40·0	16·2; 2233; 410; 1136	Bijapur; 12·0
Bolavāḍ—Mrj.—बोलवाड ..	E; 2·6	2·0; 1125; 182; 409	Miraj; 3·0
Bombevāḍī—Kpr.—बोंबेवाडी ..	NE; 45·0	6·1; 639; 112; 236	Atpadi; 5·0
Boragāṅv—Mrj.—बोरगांव ..	E; 18·0	6·7; 1726; 306; 661	Shirdhon; 2·0
Boragāṅv—Tsv.—बोरगांव ..	NW; 8·0	9·2; 2649; 472; 1327	Local; ..
Boragāṅv—Wla.—बोरगांव ..	NE; 5·0	10·2; 6485; 1145; 2451	Local; ..
Borgī Bk.—Jth.—बोर्गी बु. ..	E; 32·0	3·3; 653; 123; 290	.. ..
Borgī Kh.—Jth.—बोर्गी खु. ..	E; 32·0	1·9; 736; 150; 495	.. ..
Bramhanāḷ—Tsv.—ब्रम्हनाळ ..	SW; 10·0	1·3; 1632; 282; 648	Bhilvadi; 4·0

Railway Station; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Kavathe-Mahankal; 18·0	Local; .. Fri.	Local; ..	W;[illegible]	5 Sl (3 pr, 2 [illegible]); Cs (c); Basaveshvar Fr. Vsk. Sud. 15, Bhairavnath Fr. Mg. Sud. 15; 5 tl; m; 2 mq; 2 gym; lib.
Jath Road; 4·0	Jath; 5·0; Tue.	.. 0·1	W;w.	Sl (pr); Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 2 tl; mq.
Madhavnagar; 3·0	Budhagaon; 2·0; Sun.	Budhagaon; 2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Datta Fr. Mg. Vad. 5; 2 tl; mq; gym; lib.
Takari; 23·0	Shirala; 2·0; Mon.	Stage; 0·2	W;w; rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 3; 3 tl; gym.
Javale; 21·0	Local; .. Thu.	Local; ..	W.	2 Sl (pr); 2 Cs (wvg, mp); 6 tl; m; mq; ch; lib.
Bijapur; 12·0	Bijapur; 12·0; Sun.	6·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr); Cs (c); Hanuman Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 3 tl; m; mq; dg.
Local; 1·4	Miraj; 3·0; Tue.	Miraj; 2·6	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs; Moti Pir Urus Mg; 2 tl; mq; ch; lib.
Sangola; 12·0	Atpadi; 5·0; Sat.	Atpadi; 6·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Laxmi Fr. Srn. Sud. 15; 3 tl; lib.
Kavathe Mahankal; 10·0	Shirdhon; 2·0; Tue.	Stage; 0·4	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (c); Yallama Fr. Ps; 3 tl; mq; ch.
Bhilvadi; 10·0	Palus; 5·0; Tue.	Local; ..	n.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Siddheshvar Fr. Ct. Vad. 8; 8 tl; mq; 2 gym; ch; 2 lib.
Takari; 4·0	Local; .. Fri.	Local; ..	w;rv.	6 Sl (5 pr, m); 7 Cs; Biroba Fr. Ct. Sud. 1; 12 tl; m; mq; 3 gym; ch; lib.
.. ..	.. .. ..	Utagi; 9·0	w;rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); Yallama Devi Fr. Ps. Sud. 15; 4 tl; lib.
.. ..	.. .. ..	Utagi; 10·0	w;rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); Yallama Fr. Mrg. Sud. [illegible] tl; mq; dg; ch; lib.
Bhilvadi; 4·0	Sangli; 8·0; Sat.	.. ..	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Mahashivratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 14; 4 tl; m; lib.

Village Name.	Direction; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists.	Post Office; Distance.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Cincolī—Srl.—चिंचोली	W; 14·0	1·2; 946; 186; 478	Kokarud; 1·0
Coroci—Mrj—चोरोची	NE; 40·0	8·6; 1559; 291; 814	Kavathe Mahankal; 3·0
Cudekhindī—Mrj.—चुडेखिंडी	NE; 39·0	5·4; 704; 133; 403	Kavathe Mahankal; 4·0
Dahīvaḍī—Tsv.—दहीवडी	NE; 18·0	5·2; 1432; 248; 662	Khanapur; 10·0
Dahyārī—Tsv.—दह्यारी	NW; 24·0	1·1; 620; 102; 256	Takari; 2·0
Ḍaphaḷāpūr—Jth.—डफळापूर	W; 11·0	17·5; 3427; 623; 1314	Local; ..
Darībaḍacī—Jth.—दरीबडची	E; 15·0	15·3; 2550; 370; 1302	.. ..
Darīkoṇūr—Jth.—दरीकोणूर	E; 14·0	7·1; 796; 139; 486	Muchandi; ..
Desiṅg—Mrj.—देशिंग	NE; 16·0	13·8; 4221; 724; 1726	Local; ..
Devanāḷ—Jth.—देवनाळ	SE; 4·0	3·4; 534; 106; 190	Jath; 4·0
Devarāṣṭre—Kpr.—देवराष्ट्रे	SW; 14·0	7·3; 3181; 574; 1264	Local; ..
Devarḍe—Wln.—देवर्डे	SW; 12·0	0·7; 638; 106; 247	Aitvade Khj.; 2·0
Devhāre—Srl.—देव्हारे	NW; 33·0	1·1; 153; 43; 86	Arale; 9·0
Devīkhindī—Kpr.—देवीखिंडी	NE; 12·0	9·4; 1499; 279; 800	Vejegaon;
Ḍhālagāṅv—Mrj.—ढालगांव	NE; 32·0	11·4; 3112; 561; 1071	Local; ..
Ḍhālevāḍī—Mrj.—ढालेवाडी	NE; 32·0	3·1; 872; 158; 505	Kavathe Mahankal; 6·0

Railway Station ; Distance. (5)		Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day. (6)		Motor Stand ; Distance. (7)		Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
Takari;	35·0	Kokarud;	1·0; Wed.	Stage;	..	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; Atmaling Fr. Mg. Vad. 12; 3tl; m; gym; lib.
Dhalgaon;	2·0	Dhalgaon;	2·0; Sun.	Stage;	..	W;n.	2 Sl (pr); Cs (mp); Shidoba-dev Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 5 tl; dh.
Dhalgaon;	3·0	Dhalgaon;	3·0; Sun.	Dhalgaon	2·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr); tl.
Dhulgaon;	13·0	Savalaj;	6·0; Sat.	Savalaj;	5·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Pir Urus Phg. Vad. 9; 3tl; mq; dg; lib.
Takari;	2·0	Takari;	2·0; Mon.	Takari;	1·4	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 3 tl; gym.
Kavathe Mahankal;	21·0	Local;	.. Thu.	Local;	..	W;w.	3 Sl (2 pr, m); Cs (c); Ekavira Devi Fr. Ct. Sud. 15, Yallamadevi Fr. Mrg. Sud. 15; 12 tl; 2 m; mq; dg; dh; gym; ch; 3 lib; 2 dp (1 vet).
..	..	..	..	..	3·0	W;w; n.	2 Sl (pr); Cs; Bhairavanath Fr. Srn; 5 tl; mq.
Bijapur;	30·0	Jath;	32·0; Tue.	Stage;	..	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl; mq.
Kavathe Mahankal;	20·0	Kavathe Mahankal;	5·0; Tue.	Stage;	..	W;w.	3 Sl (2 pr, h); Cs (mp); Vijaya Dashami Fr. An. Sud. 10; 4 tl; 2 gym; 2 dp.
Jath Road;	8·0	Jath;	4·0; Tue.	..	0·1	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; m; gym.
Takari;	3·0	Local;	.. Wed.	Local;	..	W;w.	3 Sl (2 pr, h); 2 Cs (2 mis); Sagareshvar Fr. Mg. Vad. 30, Lingeshvar Fr. Mg. Vad. 5; 25 tl; m; mq; dg; 2 gym; ch; lib; 2 dp.
Takari;	21·0	Chikurde;	2·0; Fri.	Local;	..	W;n.	Sl (pr); Bhairavanath Fr. Ct. Vad. 8; tl; m; gym; lib.
Karad;	36·0	Arale;	6·0; Sat.	Arale;	8·0	rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Karad;	36·0	Kaledhon;	4·0; Tue.	Lengare;	3·0	w; str;	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Pir Urus Phg. Vad. 2; 3 tl; ch; 2 lib.
Local;	..	Local;	.. Sun.	Stage;	..	W;w.	3 Sl (2 pr, h); 2 Cs (mp, c); 9 tl; mq; dg; ch; 2 lib; 4 dp.
Langarpeth;	1·0	Dhalgaon;	4·0; Sun.	Dhalgaon;	3·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Hanuman Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 2 tl; ch; dp.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)		Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)				Post Office; Distance. (4)	
Dhāmaṇī—Mrj.—धामणी ..	W;	5·0	2·0;	2541;	430;	678	Jaisingpur;	4·0
Dhāmavaḍe—Srl.—धामवडे ..	NW;	10·0	3·1;	1067;	208;	491	Shirala;	12·0
Ḍhavaḷeśvar—Kpr.—ढवळेश्वर ..	SW;	3·4	4·9;	1133;	188;	494	Vite;	3·4
Ḍhavaḷī—Mrj.—ढवळी ..	S;	5·0	2·5;	1471;	247;	684	Miraj;	5·0
Ḍhavaḷī—Tsv.—ढवळी ..	NW;	5·0	6·2;	2297;	385;	1201	Tasgaon;	3·0
Ḍhavaḷī—Wla.—ढवळी ..	SE;	14·0	1·6;	1308;	256;	397	Local;	..
Dhuḷagāṅv—Mrj.—धुळगाव ..	NE;	26·0	3·0;	2333;	397;	603	Kavathe Mahankal;	5·0
Dhuḷagāṅv—Tsv.—धुळगाव ..	SE;	9·0	8·1;	1391;	230;	488	Soni;	0·4
Dighañcī—Kpr.—दिघंची ..	NE;	46·1	21·2;	4456;	867;	1429	Local;	..
Ḍigraj Mauje—Mrj.—डिग्रज मौजे	NW;	12·0	4·2;	1970;	298;	823	Sangli;	5·0
Ḍoṅgarasonī—Tsv.—डोंगरसोनी ..	NE;	17·6	10·4;	2397;	428;	1244	Local;	..
Ḍorlī—Jth.—डोर्ली ..	W;	18·0	5·5;	1142;	202;	649	Dhalgaon;	3·0
Ḍorlī—Tsv.—डोर्ली ..	NE;	7·0	1·7;	459;	76;	281	Aravade;	1·4
Dudhagāṅv—Mrj.—दुधगांव ..	W;	22·0	7·3;	6559;	1144;	2076	Local;	..

Railway Station ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day.		Motor Stand ; Distance.		Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)		(6)		(7)		(8)	(9)
Vishrambag;	2·0	Sangli;	3·0; Sat.	..	0·4	w;w; rv.	2 Sl (pr); 5 Cs (5 mis); 5 tl; mq; dg; dh; gym; ch; 2 lib; dp.
Takari;	33·0	Shirasi;	3·0; Fri.	Shirasi;	1·4	W;w.	2 Sl (pr); Cs (c); Ganapati Fr. Bdp. Sud. 14; 2 tl; gym.
Kirloskarvadi;	11·4	Vite;	3·4; Mon.	Vite;	3·4	w;n.	2 Sl (pr); Cs (c); 3 tl; gym; ch; 2 lib.
Miraj;	5·0	Miraj;	5·0; Tue.	Stage;	2·4	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; mq; dg; 2 gym; lib.
Bhilvadi;	5·0	Tasgaon;	3·0; Thu.	..	1·4	w;rv.	2 Sl (pr); Cs (mp); Mahadev Fr. Mg. Vad. 12; 5 tl; 2 mq; ch; 2 lib; dp.
Sangli;	15·0	Bagani;	2·0; Wed.	Local;	..	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); 6 tl; mq; dg; lib.
Local;	..	Kavathe Mahankal;	5·0; Tue.	..	3·0	W;rv.	3 Sl (2 pr, m); Cs (c); tl; ch; dp.
Madhavnagar;	6·0	Soni;	0·4; Mon.	..	2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Pir Urus Phg. Vad. 7; 3 tl; m; 2 mq; dg; gym; ch; 2 lib.
Sangola;	25·0	Local;	.. Sun.	Local;	..	rv;n.	5 Sl (4 pr, h); 3 Cs (mis); Yamai Devi Fr. Phg. Vad. 5; 14 tl; mq; dh; gym; ch; lib; 3 dp.
Sangli;	5·0	Sangli;	5·0; Sat.	Kasabe Digraj;	1·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); Basveshvar Fr. Mg. Vad. 13; 7 tl; mq; 2 gym; ch; lib.
Dhulgaon;	10·0	Savalaj;	3·0; Sat.	Stage;	..	w;n.	2 Sl (pr); Cs (c); Yallama Devi Fr. Ps. Vad. 13; 10 tl; m; mq; dg; ch; 2 lib.
Dhalgaon;	3·0	Dhalgaon;	3·0; Sun.	Dhalgaon;	3·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Brahmanath Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 3 tl.
Bhilvadi;	14·0	Manjarde;	4·0; Tue.	Aravade;	1·4	rv.	Cs (c); 2 tl; mq; gym; lib.
Sangli;	14·0	Sangli;	14·0; Sat.	Local;	..	W;rv.	4 Sl (3 pr, m); 3 Cs; Mahashivaratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 10; 3 tl; 2 mq; dg; gym; ch; lib; 2 dp.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)		Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)				Post Office; Distance. (4)	
Dudhāri—Wlw.—दुधारी ..	NE;	10·0	1·9;	1039;	174;	405	Takari;	1·0
Dudhebhāvī—Mrj.—दुधेभावी ..	NE;	41·0	6·1;	1285;	236;	601	..	..
Dudhoṇḍī—Tsv.—दुधोंडी ..	NW;	22·0	3·2;	3496;	603;	790	Local;	..
Ekuṇḍī—Jth.—एकुंडी ..	SW;	15·0	5·0;	965;	167;	492	Jath;	5·0
Eraṇḍolī—Mrj.—एरंडोली ..	E;	10·0	9·9;	4649;	809;	1760	Local;	..
Gaḷavevāḍī—Kpr.—गळवेवाडी .	NE;	47·0	2·5;	804;	121;	427	Nimbavade;	3·0
Gārḍī—Kpr.—गार्डी ..	N;	2·0	5·3;	1255;	218;	392	Vite;	2·4
Gauragāṅ—Tsv.—गौरगाव ..	NE;	13·0	4·4;	1205;	219;	548	Aravade;	3·0
Gave—Stl.—गवे ..	NW;	49·0	2·1;	77;	16;	29	Arale;	25·0
Gavhāṇ—Tsv.—गव्हाण ..	E;	14·4	3·8;	2200;	382;	897	Kavathe Mahankal;	9·0
Ghāṇand—Kpr.—घाणंद ..	NE;	28·0	6·0;	1067;	203;	301	Kharsundi;	4·0
Ghāṇavaḍ—Kpr.—घाणवड ..	N;	3·0	3·9;	1144;	188;	610	Vite;	3·0
Gharaniki—Kpr.—घरनिकी ..	NE;	31·0	8·6;	1433;	233;	483	Kharsundi;	5·0
Ghāṭanāndre—Mrj.—घाटनांद्रे ..	NE;	36·0	8·0;	1603;	284;	547	Khanapur;	8·0
Ghogāṃv—Tsv.—घोगांव ..	NW;	20·0	2·3;	1199;	195;	382	Takari;	1·4

Railway Station; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Takari; 1·0	Takari; 1·0; Mon.	Takari; 1·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Pir Urus Ct. Vad. 12, Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 2 tl; mq; gym; lib.
..	.. ..	.. 4·0	w;n.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Kirloskarvadi; 4·0	Local; .. Wed.	Kirloskarvadi; 3·0	w;rv.	3 Sl (2 pr, h); 4 Cs; Shivajayanti Fr. Phg. Vad. 3; 2 tl; m; 2 mq; dg; gym; ch; 2 lib; 2 dp.
Jath Road; ..	Billur; 5·0; Fri.	Dafalapur; 6·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Mallikarjun Fr. Ct., Basveshvar Fr. Srn; 6 tl; m; mq; ch.
Arag; 2·0	Miraj; 9·0; Tue.	.. 3·0	W;n.	3 Sl (2 pr, h); Cs; Janubai Fr. Ps. Sud. 15; 5 tl; mq; dg; dh; gym; ch; lib; dp.
Sangola; 20·0	Nimbavade; 3·0; Tue.	.. 1·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl; lib.
Karad; 24·0	Vite; 2·4; Mon.	Stage; ..	w;n.	Sl (pr); Rangapanchami Fr. Phg. Sud. 5; 3 tl; mq; gym.
Bhilvadi; 15·0	Manjarde; 1·4; Tue.	Manjarde, 1·4	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Nath Fr. Ct. Vad. 8; 5 tl; gym; ch; lib.
Karad; 28·0	Peth-Lond; 6·0; Fri.	Arale; 27·0	w; str.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kavathe Mahankal; 14·0	Shirdhon; 4·0; Thu.	Local; ..	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Laxmidevi Fr. Vsk. Sud. 15; 4 tl; gym; 2 lib.
Dhalgaon; 25·0	Kharsundi; 4·0; Sun.	Local; ..	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Siddhanath Fr. Kt. Sud. 15; 2 tl; lib.
Karad; 25·0	Vite; 3·0; Mon.	.. 0·3	w;n.	2 Sl (pr, h); 5 tl; m; gym; ch.
Vasud; 26·0	Kaledhon; 5·0; Tue.	Ghanandpati; 7·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Pir Urus Ct. Sud. 3; tl; mq; lib.
Dhalgaon; 6·0	Dhalgaon; 6·0; Sun.	Stage; ..	W;w.	3 Sl (2 pr, m); Cs (c); Yallama Fr. Ps. Sud. 15; 3 tl; mq; ch; 2 lib.
Takari; 1·4	Takari; 1·4; Mon.	Local; ..	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Hanuman Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; tl; mq; dg; ch.

Village Name.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists.	Post Office ; Distance.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Gholeśvar—Jth.—घोलेश्वर ..	NE; 10·0	5·0; 602; 104; 267	Jath; 9·0
Ghorapaḍī—Mrj.—घोरपडी ..	NE; 38·0	8·3; 1246; 227; 601	Khanapur; ..
Ghoṭī Bk.—Kpr.—घोटी बु. ..	SE; 7·0	4·3; 958; 164; 506	Renavi; 4·0
Ghoṭī Kh.—Kpr.—घोटी खु. ..	E; 12·0	2·6; 1002; 179; 452	Renavi; 4·0
Giragāṅv—Jth.—गिरगांव ..	E; 40·0	8·8; 1180; 204; 484	Bijapur; 6·0
Girajavaḍe—Srl.—गिरजवडे ..	N; 11·0	2·4; 665; 123; 306	Shirala; 11·0
Gomevāḍī—Kpr.—गोमेवाडी .	E; 24·0	7·8; 2135; 385; 752	Karagani; 3·0
Goṭakhinḍī—Wl..—गोटखिंडी ..	SE; 9·0	9·4; 4954; 900; 1983	Local; ..
Guḍḍāpūr—Jth.—गुड्डापूर ..	E; 20·0	3·6; 429; 75; 191	Jath; 15·0
Guḍhe—Srl.—गुढे ..	NW; 21·0	2·8, 676; 140; 399	Panumbre Tarf Varun; 5·0
Gugavāḍ—Jth.- गुगवाड ..	S; 14·0	8·0, 1498; 246; 753	Billur; 5·0
Culaguñjanāl—Jth.—गुलगुजनाळ..	E; 40·0	1·9; 244; 44; 85	Kanur; 3·0
Gulavañcī—Jth.—गुळवंची ..	NW; 16·0	5·8; 839; 147; 363	.. ..
Guṇḍevāḍī—Mrj.—गुंडेवाडी ..	NE; 8·0	4·0; 1776; 334; 867	Khande Rajuri; 2·0
Haḷḷī—Jth.—हळ्ळी ..	NE; 35·0	6·9; 1289; 218; 638	Umadi; 3·0
Hanamantavaḍiye—Kpr.—हणमंतवडिये. ..	W; 7·0	3·7; 1206; 215; 440	Vadiyeraibag; 1·0

Railway Station; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day.		Motor Stand; Distance.		Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)		(6)		(7)		(8)	(9)
Jath Road;	15·0	Jath;	9·0; Tue.	..	1·4	W;w.	Sl (pr); 3 tl; mq; dg; ch.
Dhalgaon;	..	Dhalgaon;	.. Sun.	..	1·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); 4 tl; ch.
Kirloskarvadi;	26·0	Khanapur;	6·0; Fri.	..	3·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 5 tl.
Kirloskarvadi;	28·0	Khanapur;	6·0; Fri.	..	2·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Tukaram Fr. Phg. Sud. 2; 5 tl; m; mq; dh; gym; ch; lib.
Nimbal;	15·0	Chadchan;	15·0; Wed.	..	3·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr); pyt; Hanuman Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 5 tl; mq; dg.
Karad;	27·0	Shirala;	11·0; Mon.	..	2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Jyotirling Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; tl; gym.
Sangola;	20·0	Karagani;	3·0; Thu.	Stage;	..	n.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Ganapati Fr. Bdp. Sud. 4; 3 tl; lib.
Takari;	18·0	Local;	.. Wed.	Padvalvadi;	2·0	W;w.	3 Sl (2 pr, m); 3 Cs (c); Mahashivratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 11; 4 tl; m; mq; gym; ch; 2 lib; 2 dp.
Bijapur;	25·0	Asangijath;	2·4; Wed.	Stage;	..	W;w.	Sl (pr); Dhanama Devi Fr. Srn. Vad. 30, Mahadev Fr. Mg. Vad. 13; 2 tl; mq; ch.
Takari;	43·0	Charan;	7·0; Thu.	Charan;	3·0	W;w.	3 Sl (pr); Cs (gr); Asubai Devi Fr. Srn. Vad. 8; 4 tl; lib.
Dhulgaon;	15·0	Billur;	5·0; Fri.	Billur;	6·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 5 tl; m; mq; dg; gym; ch.
Bijapur;	15·0	Kanur;	3·0; Mon.	..	4·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Hanuman Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; tl.
..	..	..	.. .. ..	Kumbhari;	5·0	w;n.	Sl (pr); Pir Urus Ct. Vad. 6; 3 tl; ch.
Arag;	5·0	Malegaon;	2·0; Fri.	Local;	..	W;w; n.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Pirsaheb Urus Mg; 2 tl; mq; dg; gym.
Indi Road;	30·0	Umadi;	3·0; Sun.	Umadi;	3·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); Ramlingeshvar Fr. Srn; 6 tl; m; mq; dh; ch.
Karad;	13·0	Vite;	7·0; Mon.	Local;	..	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 3 tl; m; dh; gym.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office; Distance. (4)
Haripūr—Mrj.—हरिपूर	W; 10·0	2·1; 1976; 358; 557	Local;
Harolī—Mrj.—हरोली	NE; 16·0	4·1; 1005; 183; 397	Deshing; ..
Hātanolī—Tsv.—हातनोली	N; 11·0	5·5; 1096; 183; 643	Hatnur; 2·0
Hātanūr—Tsv.—हातनूर	N; 12·0	11·3; 3056; 576; 1348	Local; ..
Hātegānv—Srl.—हातेगांव	NW; 12·0	1·7; 514; 93; 269	Charan; 5·0
Hingaṇgāde—Kpr.—हिंगणगादे	N; 7·0	2·8; 978; 182; 441	Vite; 6·0
Hiṅgaṇagānv—Mrj.—हिंगणगांव	NE; 24·0	7·9; 3783; 643; 1616	Local;
Hiṅgaṇagānv Bk.—Kpr.—हिंगणगांव बु.	N; 19·0	4·9; 2161; 391; 1050	Kadegaon; 7·0
Hiṅgaṇagānv Kh.—Kpr.—हिंगणगांव खु.	W; 14·0	4·0; 1724; 294; 524	Tadasar; 2·0
Hivare—Jth.—हिवरे	W; 12·0	9·7; 1761; 277; 944	.. ..
Hivare—Kpr.—हिवरे	SE; 20·0	6·0; 1472; 269; 777	Tasgaon; 2·0
Hivatad—Kpr.—हिवतड	E; 26·0	8·6; 1427; 266; 600	Karagani; 5·0
Ingrūḷ—Srl.—इंग्रूळ	SE; 5·0	5·0; 2263; 455; 881	Shirala; 3·0
Iraḷī—Mrj.—इरळी	NE; 35·0	8·3; 1375; 233; 655	Kavathe Mahankal; 4·0
Itakare—Wls.—इटकरे	S; 8·0	3·6; 1992; 399; 570	Local;

Railway Station; Distance. (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day. (6)	Motor Stand; Distance. (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
Sangli; 2·4	Sangli; 2·4; Sat.	.. 3·0	w;rv.	2 Sl (pr); 2 Cs (c); Sangameshvar Fr. Mg. Sud. 1; 4 tl; gym; ch; lib.
Alkuna; 3·0	Deshing; .. Fri.	Stage; ..	W;w.	3 Sl (2 pr, h); Cs (mp); Pir Urus Ct; 3 tl; mq; gym.
Bhilvadi; 15·0	Hatnur; 2·0; Wed.	Hatnur; 2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Nath Fr. Ct. Vad. 8; 4 tl; mq; dh; gym; ch; 2 lib.
Bhilvadi; 16·0	Local; .. Wed.	Stage; ..	w;n.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs; Honaidevi Fr. Mg. Sud. 15; 8 tl; m; dh; gym; ch; 2 lib; 3 dp.
Karad; 26·0	Charan; 5·0; Thu.	Shedgevadi; 2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Ambabai Fr. Mg. Sud. 15; 3 tl.
Karad; 26·0	Vite; 6·0; Mon.	.. 2·0	w;n.	Sl (pr); Nath Fr. Ct. Sud. 8; 4 tl.
Dhulgaon; 5·0	Kavathe Mahankal; 5·0; Tue.	.. 2·0	w;w; rv.	2 Sl (pr); Cs (c); Yallama Devi Fr. Ps. Sud. 11; 3 tl; mq; dg; gym; ch; lib; dp.
Karad; 21·0	Local; .. Mon.	Stage; ..	w;rv.	2 Sl(pr, h); Cs(c); Siddheshvar Fr. Mg. Vad. 13; 6 tl; m; dh; gym; lib.
Karad; 14·0	Kadegaon; 3·4; Fri.	.. 0·2	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 4 tl; m; mq; dg; gym; lib.
..	..	Stage; ..	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (mp); Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 3 tl; m; 2 mq; dg; 2 dh; gym; ch; lib.
Dhalgaon, 14·0	Khanapur; 5·0; Fri.	.. 0·1	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); pyt; Cs (c); Yallama Fr. Mg. Sud. 15; 3 tl; mq; gym; lib.
Dhalgaon; 16·0	Karagani; 5·0; Thu.	Gomevadi; 2·0	n.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl; lib.
Takari; 24·0	Shirala; 3·0; Mon.	Shirala; 5·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cc (c); Maruti Fr. Vsk. Sud. 3; 3 tl; mq; 3 gym; ch.
Langarpeth; 3·0	Kavathe Mahankal; 4·0; Tue.	.. ..	w.	..
Takari; 16·0	Yelur; 2·0; Sat.	Stage; 0·6	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs (c, mis); Biruba Fr. Ct. Sud. 1; 2 tl; gym; ch; lib.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office; Distance. (4)
Jākhāpūr—Mrj.—जाखापूर ..	NE; 25·0	3·8; 1023; 177; 292	Kavathe Mahankal; 5·0
Jālīhāḷ Bk.—Jth.—जालीहाळ बु. ..	E; 34·0	4·4; 712; 124; 404	Kannur; 9·0
Jālīhāḷ Kh.—Jth.—जालीहाळ खु. ..	SE; 18·0	3·4; 255; 39; 92	.. ..
Jāmbhūḷaṇī—Kpr.—जांभूळणी ..	NE; 30·0	6·8; 424; 85; 115	Kharsundi; 4·0
Jaraṇḍī—Tsv.—जरंडी ..	NE; 21·0	7·0; 1800; 308; 687	Khanapur; 10·0
Jat—Jth.—जत ..	HQ; ..	34·3; 10439, 2020; 2167	Local; ..
Jāvalī—Srl.—जावली ..	NW; 49·0	2·4; 112; 31; 37	Arale; 22·0
Jāyagavhāṇ—Mrj.—जायगव्हाण ..	NW; 20·0	3·1; 1096; 190; 494	Kavathe Mahankal; 5·0
Jhare—Kpr.—झरे ..	NW; 28·0	15·7; 2041; 405; 937	Kharsundi; 9·0
Jhoḷambī—Srl.—झोळंबी ..	NW; 37·0	7·0; 305; 73; 185	Arale; 9·0
Jiragvāḷ—Jth.—जिरग्याळ ..	SW; 15·0	4·8; 1613; 281; 751	Jath; 2·2
Jondhaḷakhiṇḍī—Kpr.—जोंधळखिंडी	NE, 6·4	3·0; 613; 127; 310	Vejegaon; 4·0
Kaḍegāṅv—Kpr.—कडेगांव ..	W; 14·0	7·3; 4369; 829; 1415	Local; ..
Kaḍepūr—Kpr.—कडेपूर ..	W; 12·0	8·1; 2728; 448; 790	Local; ..
Kāganarī—Jth.—कागनरी ..	SE; 33·0	7·8; 533; 96; 265	.. ..

Railway Station ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day.		Motor Stand ; Distance.		Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)		(6)		(7)		(8)	(9)
Kavathe Mahankal;	7·0	Kavathe Mahankal;	5·0; Tue.	Stage;	..	w;w; n.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Siddheshvar; Fr. Ct. Sud. 8; 3 tl; mq; gym; ch; lib.
Minchnal;	18·0	Bijapur;	21·0; Sun.	Sankh;	..	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; m; mq; ch.
..	..	..	.. ..	..	4·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; mq.
Sangola;	26·0	Kharsundi;	4·0; Sun.	Ghanand;	..	w;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; Siddhhanath Fr. Kt. Sud. 15; tl; lib.
Dhulgaon;	12·0	Savalaj;	7·0; Sat.	Local;	..	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Vyankatesh-dev Fr. Vsk. Sud. 3; 4 tl; dh; ch; lib.
Jath Road;	10·0	Local;	.. Tue.	Local;	..	W;w.	6 Sl (4 pr, 2 h); 2 Cs (c, mp); Yallama Devi Fr. Mrg. Vad. 11; 11 tl; 3 m; 2 mq; dg; ch; lib; 6 dp (1 vet).
Karad;	30·0	Pat-Lond;	4·0; Fri.	Arale;	27·0	w; str.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kavathe Mahankal;	5·0	Kavathe Mahankal;	5·0; Tue.	..	1·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Laxmidevi Fr. Mg. Sud. 12; 5 tl; gym; lib.
Dhalgaon;	32·0	Local;	.. Mon.	Local;	..	W;w.	4 Sl (2 pr, m, h); 2 Cs (2 c); Virdev Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 4 tl; 2 lib.
Karad;	36·0	Arale;	9·0; Sat.	Arale;	12·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Kavathe Mahankal;	22·0	Dafalapur;	4·0; Thu.	Dafalapur;	4·0	w;w; n.	Sl (pr); Mahalingeshvar Fr. Vsk. Sud. 3; 3 tl; mq.
Karad;	32·0	Longare;	.. Sat.	Local;	..	w;n.	Sl (pr); 3 Cs (c); Pir Urus Ct. Sud. 9; 3 tl; gym; lib.
Karad;	9·0	Local;	.. Fri.	Local;	..	w;n.	4 Sl (3 pr, h); pyt; 3 Cs (3 mis); Ganapati Fr. Bdp. Sud. 4; 8 tl; 3 m; 4 mq; dh; gym; ch; 2 lib. 4 dp.
Karad;	..	Kadegaon;	2·0; Fri.	Local;	..	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (c); Devlai Fr. Vsk. Sud. 4; 10 tl; mq; dh; gym; ch; 3 lib.
..	..	..	.. ..	Tikundi;	..	w.	Sl (pr); Layavadevi Fr. Ct. Sud. 1; 6 tl; mq; ch.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office; Distance. (4)
Kākaḍavāḍī—Mrj.—काकडवाडी ..	N; 10·0	0·7; 570; 86; 156	..
Kaḷambī—Kpr.—कळंबी ..	SW; 5·3	2·8; 792; 134; 305	Bhalvani; 2·0
Kaḷambī—Mrj.—कळंबी ..	N; 6·0	2·9; 1630; 296; 701	Miraj; 6·0
Kāḷundre—Srl.—काळुंद्रे ..	NW; 18·0	1·3; 899; 158; 450	Arale; 2·0
Kamaḷāpūr—Kpr.—कमळापूर ..	SW; 9·4	3·0; 566; 94; 278	Bhalvani; 2·0
Kāmat—Kpr.—कामत ..	NE; 33·0	6·7; 537; 113; 232	Kharsundi; 5·0
Kāmerī—Wla.—कामेरी ..	S; 4·2	11·0; 7044; 1244; 2448	Local; ..
Kānaḍavāḍī—Mrj.—कानडवाडी ..	N; 4·0	2·0; 694; 123; 207	Budhagaon; 8·0
Kaṇadur—Srl.—कणदूर ..	SW; 7·0	2·0; 1988; 385; 679	Shirala; 9·0
Kānde—Srl.—कांदे ..	S; 6·0	3·1; 2272; 414; 900	Shirala; 7·0
Kaṇegāṅv—Wla.—कणेगांव ..	S; 11·0	1·7; 1218; 205; 328	Tandulvadi; 4·0
Kānharavāḍī—Kpr.—कान्हरवाडी	N; 7·0	2·5; 631; 129; 292	Yetgaon; 2·0
Kaṇṭhī—Jth.—कंठी ..	W; 6·0	6·8; 951; 181; 556	Jath; 6·0
Kāparī—Srl.—कापरी ..	SE; 1·4	3·4; 755; 144; 293	Shirala; 2·0
Kāpūsakheḍ—Wla.—कापूसखेड ..	NW; 2·0	2·3; 2925; 529; 810	Local; ..
Karagaṇī—Kpr.—करगणी ..	E; 26·0	27·7; 7144; 1230; 2782	Local; ..

Railway Station ; Distance. (5)		Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day. (6)		Motor Stand ; Distance. (7)		Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
..	..	..	.. ..	Local;	..	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); 2 tl; gym.
Kirloskarvadi;	10·0	Vite;	4·0; Mon.	Khambale Bhalvani;	1·4	w;n.	Sl (m); Cs (c); Jyotirling Fr. Ct. Vad. 7; 4 tl; gym; 2 lib.
Miraj;	6·0	Miraj;	6·0; Tue.	Stage;	..	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); pyt; Cs (mp); 6 tl; mq; dg; dh; gym; lib; dp.
Takari;	39·0	Arale;	2·0; Sat.	Arale;	2·0	w;n.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 3 tl; gym; lib.
Kirloskarvadi;	7·0	Kundal;	4·0; Sun.	Alsund;	2·4	W;w; rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl; mq; lib.
Sangola;	28·0	Kharsundi;	5·0; Sun.	Ghanand;	..	n.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; lib.
Takari;	12·0	Local;	.. Fri.	Local;	..	W;w.	6 Sl (5 pr, h); 3 Cs; Siddheshvar Fr. Phg. Sud. 1, Bahiravdev Fr. Vsk. Sud. 9; 7 tl; 2 m; mq; dg; dh; 2 gym; ch; lib; dp; Cch.
Madhavnagar;	6·0	Miraj;	6·0; Tue.	Miraj;	3·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl; ch.
Takari;	30·0	Sagaon;	2·0; Sun.	Sagaon;	2·0	W;n.	2 Sl (pr, m); pyt; Cs; Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 2 tl; m; mq; lib.
Takari;	28·0	Shirala;	7·0; Mon.	Local;	..	w;rv.	2 Sl (pr); 3 Cs; Jyotirling Fr. Ct. Sud. 7; 10 tl; m; gym; ch.
Takari;	21·0	Tandulvadi;	1·0; Tue.	Stage;	0·4	w;rv.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs; 2 tl; lib.
Karad;	22·0	Vite;	7·0; Mon.	..	2·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Pir Urus Ct. Sud. 6; 2 tl; mq; gym.
Dhalgaon;	10·0	Jath;	6·0; Tue.	Jath;	6·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Nagursiddhadev Fr. Ct. Vad. 2; 4 tl; mq.
Takari;	22·0	Shirala;	2·0; Mon.	Shirala;	1·4	W;w; n.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Maruti Fr. Ct. Vad. 5; 3 tl; gym; Cch.
Takari;	12·0	Uran Islampur;	2·0; Sun; Thu.	..	2·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr); 2 Cs (c, mp); Hanuman Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 6 tl; mq; dh; 5 gym; lib.
Dhalgaon;	16·0	Local;	.. Thu.	Stage;	..	w;n.	6 Sl (5 pr, m); 2 Cs (mis); Mahashivratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 13; 4 tl; mq; dh; 2 gym; ch; lib.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office; Distance. (4)
Karajagi—Jth.—करजगी ..	E; 30·0	11·7; 1473; 244; 648	Jath; 7·0
Kārājanagi—Jth.—काराजनगी ..	NE; 8·0	8·2; 755; 128; 453	.. ..
Karamāḷe—Srl.—करमाळे ..	N; 6·0	3·5; 987; 163; 472	Shirala; 6·0
Karaṅguḷī—Srl.—करंगली ..	NW; 19·0	2·3; 1020; 201; 515	Arale; 2·0
Karañjavaḍe—Wla.—करंजवडे ..	SW; 10·0	1·8; 1512; 281; 459	Local; ..
Karañje—Kpr.—करजे ..	SE; 18·0	4·0; 2005; 363; 960	Tasgaon; 1·4
Karnāl—Mrj.—कर्नाल ..	NW; 10·0	3·3; 2363; 406; 984	Budhagaon; 3·0
Karolī (M)—Mrj.—करोली (मि)	NE; 20·0	4·1; 2686; 428; 1182	Local; ..
Karolī (T)—Mrj.—करोली (ता)	SE; 15·0	7·1; 1632; 283; 394	So i; 2·0
Kārve—Kpr.—कार्वे ..	S, 5·2	6·2; 1255; 214; 548	Vite, 5·0
Kārve—Wla.—कार्वे ..	SW, 11·0	3·8, 1367; 247; 505	Local; ..
Kasabe-Digraj—Mrj.—कसबे-डिग्रज	NW; 13·0	9·7; 5938; 1020; 2140	Local; ..
Kāsegāṅv—Wla.—कासेगांव ..	NW; 8·0	7·4; 6168; 1066; 1836	Local; ..
Kaulage—Tsv.—कौलगे ..	NE; 7·3	1·0; 729; 115; 352	Aravade; 2·0
Kauṭhoḷī—Kpr.—कौठोळी ..	NE, 44·0	4·6; 1101; 191; 497	Atapadi; 3·0
Kavalāpūr—Mrj.—कवलापूर ..	N; 8·0	11·2; 6891; 1238; 2280	Local; ..

Railway Station; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day.		Motor Stand; Distance.		Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)		(6)		(7)		(8)	(9)
Jath Road;	15·0	Jath;	7·0; Tue.	Sankh;	7·0	w;rv.	2 Sl (pr); Cs (mp); Jineda Saheb Urus Srn; 5 tl; mq; dg.
..	..	..	.. ..	..	2·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl; mq; dg.
Takari;	18·0	Shirala;	6·0; Mon.	Vategaon;	3·0	w;n.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 3 tl; gym.
Takari;	39·0	Charan;	2·0; Sat.	Stage;	..	rv.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs (2 c); Ram Fr. Ct. Sud. 9; tl; gym.
Takari;	21·0	Aitvade Bk.;	0·4; Tue.	..	1·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Hanuman Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 2 tl; mq; gym; ch; lib.
Karad;	..	Vayaphale;	2·0; Sun.	..	2·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs (c); Khandoba Fr. Ps. Sud. 5; 3 tl; dh; gym.
Madhavnagar;	2·4	Sangli;	3·4 Sat.	Stage;	..	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c) Hanuman Jayanti Ct. Sud. 15; 2 tl; 2 mq; dg; dh; gym; lib; dp.
Dhulgaon;	3·0	Local;	.. Fri.	..	0·2	n.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Yallama Fr. Ps. Vad. 15; 2 tl; mq; dg; gym; lib.
Budhagaon;	8·0	Soni;	2·0; Mon.	..	5·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Yallama Devi Fr. Ps. Vad. 15; tl; mq; gym; ch; lib.
Kirloskarvadi;	9·0	Vite;	5·0; Mon.	Local;	..	W;w; n.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 3 tl; mq; dh; gym; lib.
Takari;	20·0	Aitvade Bk.;	2·0; Tue.	Ladegaon;	4·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Padmavati Fr. Vsk. Sud. 6; 4 tl; gym.
Sangli;	6·0	Sangli;	6·0; Sat.	Stage;	0·6	W;rv.	4 Sl (3 pr, h); 5 Cs (mp, 4 mis); 6 tl; mq; 3 gym; ch; 2 lib; 3 dp; Cch.
Karad;	14·0	Local;	.. Wed.	Local;	..	W; str.	3 Sl (pr, m, n); Cs; Khadakeshvar Fr. last Mon. of Srn; 5 tl; mq; dg; dh; ch; 4 lib; dp.
Bhilvadi;	14·0	Tasgaon;	7·0; Mon.	Stage;	..	w;n.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; tl; ch; lib.
Sangola;	14·0	Atapadi;	3·0; Sat.	Atapadi;	3·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 3 tl; mq; lib.
Madhavnagar;	3·0	Sangli;	6·0; Sat.	Local;	..	w;pl.	3 Sl (2 pr, h); 3 Cs (mp, 2 mis); Siddheshvar Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 8 tl; mq; dg; 3 gym; ch; lib; 2 dp; Cch.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office; Distance. (4)
Kavaṭhe Ekand—Tsv.—कवठे एकंद	SE; 3·0	10·0; 5559; 1009; 1627	Local; ..
Kavaṭhe-Mahānkāḷ—Mrj.—कवठे-महांकाळ.	NE; 22·0	24·6; 8562; 1492; 2967	Local; ..
Kavaṭhe-Pirān—Mrj.—कवठे-पिरान	W; 14·0	8·1; 6802; 1123; 2112	Local; ..
Korevāḍī—Mrj.—केरेवाडी ..	NE; 28·0	2·4; 559; 105; 313	Kavathe Mahankal; 4·0
Khairāv—Jth.—खैराव ..	NE; 17·2	10·7; 1195; 227; 619	.. ..
Khālasā Dhāmaṇī—Tsv.—खालसा धामणी.	N; 15·0	2·2; 707; 132; 689	Hatnur; 3·0
Khulāṭi—Jth.—खलाटी ..	SW; 7·0	8·2; 1006; 165; 561	Jath; 13·0
Khambāleaundh—Kpr.—खंबाळे-औंध.	W; 18·0	3·3; 820; 163; 420	Kadegaon; 4·0
Khambāle Bhāḷavaṇī—Kpr.—खंबाळे भाळवणी.	SW; 5·0	5·3; 1042; 189; 370	Bhalvani; 4·0
Khānāpūr—Kpr.—खानापूर ..	E; 14·0	24·3; 8836, 1609; 3798	Local; ..
Khaṇḍanāḷ—Jth.—खंडनाळ ..	E; 21·0	4·5; 573; 88; 187	Jath; 21·0
Khaṇḍe-Rājūrī—Mrj.—खंडे-राजुरी	NE; 12·0	16·5; 3354; 544; 1347	Local; ..
Kharakaṭavāḍī—Mrj.—खरकटवाडी	N; 10·0	1·3; 922; 159; 370	Budhagaon; 8·0
Kharāḷe—Srl.—खराळे .	NW; 20·0	1·9; 698; 140; 313	Panumbre Tarf Varuṇ; 2·0

Railway Station; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Nandre; 4·0	Tasgaon; 3·4; Mon.	Stage; ...	W;w.	4 Sl (3 pr, h); 2 Cs; Virsd Siddha dev Fr. An. Sud. 10; 9 tl; m; 2 mq; gym; ch; lib; 4 dp.
Local; 6·0	Local; .. Sat.	Local; ..	W;w.	9 Sl (8 pr, h); 4 Cs (4 mis); Mahashivratra Fr. Mg; Vad. 13; 6 tl; m; 2 mq; dh; 2 gym; ch; lib; 3 dp.
Sangli; 7·0	Sangli; 7·0; Sat.	Sangli; 7·0	w;rv.	6 Sl (4 pr, m, h); Cs (c) Pir Urus Mg. Vad. 11; 3 tl; 2 mq; dg; dh; ch; lib; 3 dp (1 vet).
Kavathe Mahankal; 7·0	Kavathe Maha kal; 4·0; Tue.	.. 0·2	W;w.	2 Sl (pr); Cs; Pir Saheb Urus Phg. Vad. 7; 3 tl; dh.
.. ..	.. ..	Yelavi; 2·0	W;n.	3 Sl (pr); 5 tl; mq; dg; dh.
Bhilvadi; 17·0	Hatnur; 3·0; Wed.	Hatnur; 3·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 3 tl; 2 lib.
Javali; 5·0	Yelavi; 4·0; Sat.	Stage; 0·2	W;w.	Sl (pr); Shri Laxmi Devi Fr. Fri. after Ct. Sud. 15; 2 tl; mq; ch.
Karad; 4·4	Kadegaon; 4·0; Fri.	.. 1·4	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; Pir Urus Mrg. Vad. 11; 4 tl; mq.
Kirloskarvadi; 12·0	Vite; 5·0; Mon.	Local; ..	W;w.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs (mp); tl; gym; ch; lib.
Karad; 40·0	Local; .. Fri.	Local; ..	W;w.	17 Sl (15 pr, m, h); Cs (c); Moharam Urus Srn, Khandoba Fr. Mrg. Vad. 30 to Ps. 6; 7 tl; 2 m; dg; dh; 6 gym; ch; 2 lib; 3 dp (1 vet).
Bijapur; ..	Sankh; 2·0; Mon.	Sankh; 2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; mq.
Arag; 5·0	Malegaon; 5·0; Fri.	Local; ..	W;w; n.	2 Sl (pr, h); 2 Cs (2 c); Payappa Dev Fr. Mg. Sud. 15, Bramhanath Fr. Ct. Sud. 15, 6 tl; m; mq; dg; gym.
Madhavnagar; 6·0	Miraj; 7·0; Tue.	Kavalapur; 4·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); 2 tl; gym.
Takari; 40·0	Charan; 3·0; Thu.	Charan; 2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (gr); Khareshvar Fr. Ct. Vad. 8; 2 tl.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office; Distance. (4)
Kharaśing—Mrj.—खरशिंग ..	NE; 14·0	5·8; 1760; 307; 725	Kavathe Mahankal; ..
Kharasuṇḍī—Kpr.—खरसुंडी ..	NE; 24·0	7·1; 2165; 337; 888	Local; ..
Khaṭāv—Mrj.—खटाव ..	E; 18·0	8·9; 2423; 398; 1281	Mangsuli; 8·0
Khaṭāv—Tsv.—खटाव ..	SW; 9·0	2·5; 800; 147, 331	Nandre; 1·4
Khed—Srl.—खेड .	N; 1·0	1·7; 489; 74; 107	Shirala; 1·0
Kheḍ—Wla.—खेड ..	NE; 7·0	4·0, 2833; 475; 1053	Local; ..
Kherāḍe Vānī—Kpr.—खेराडे-वांगी.	NW; 10·6	8·9; 2657; 494; 840	Local; ..
Kherāḍe Viṭā—Kpr.—खेराडे विटा	W. 8·0	4·5; 1174; 194; 641	Bhikvadi Kh.; 1·0
Khiravaḍe—Srl.—खिरवडे ..	NW; 17·4	1·4; 650; 142; 173	Charan; 5·0
Khujagāṅv—Srl.—खुजगांव ..	NW, 15·6	1·8; 1253; 228; 632	Kokarud; 3·0
Khujagāṅv—Tsv.—खुजगाव ..	NE; 9·7	4·0; 1063; 191; 521	Tasgaon; 9·0
Khundalāpūr—Srl.—खुंदलापूर ..	NW; 26·0	2·7; 480; 111; 263	Arale; 6·0
Kille Macindragaḍ—Wla.—किल्ले मच्छिंद्रगड.	N; 11·0	6·8; 2341; 425; 881	Local; ..

Railway Station ; Distance.	Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day.	Motor Stand ; Distance.	Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Miraj; 14·0	Kavathe Mahankal; 7·0; Tue.	..	W;w.	Sl (pr); 3 Cs (3 mis) Dandnath Fr. 3rd Mon. of Srn.; 2 tl; mq; dh; gym.
Dhalgaon ; 20·0	Local; .. Sun.	Stage; ..	W;w.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); Cs (c); Nath Fr. Ct. Vad. 12; 2 tl; mq; gym; ch; lib; dp.
Arag; 8·0	Arag; 8·0; Thu.	Stage; ..	W;w.	2 Sl (pr); Cs (c); Yallama Fr. Kt. Vad. 15; 5 tl; m; mq; ch.
Nandre; 1·0	Sangli; 8·0; Sat.	Kasabe Nandre; 1·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Khairisaheb Pir Urus Ps., Raghunath Amritbhuvan Fr. Mg. Sud. 10; 5 tl; m; mq; dg; gym; ch; lib.
Takari; 22·0	Shirala; 1·0; Mon.	Shirala; 1·0	W;w; n.	Sl (pr); Bahiroba Fr. Ct. Sud. 1; 3 tl.
Takari; 6·0	Walwa; 4·0, Fri.	Borgaon; 3·0	W;w; rv.	3 Sl (pr); 2 Cs (mp); Bhairav Fr. Ct. Vad. 8; 10 tl; m; 2 gym; ch; 3 lib.
Karad; 20·0	Kadegaon; 11·0, Fri.	Stage; ..	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, h); pyt; Cs (mp.); Ramnavami Fr. Ct. Sud, 9; 4 tl; mq; gym; ch; 2 lib;dp.
Karad; 13·0	Vite; 7·0; Mon.	. 2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Maruti; Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 4 tl.
Karad; 27·0	Charan; 5·0; Thu.	Khujagaon; 1·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl; gym.
Takari; 35·0	Kokarud; 3·0; Wed.	Local; .	w;n.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); Tukaram Fr. Phg. Vad.2; 5 tl; gym; lib; dp.
Bhilvadi; 18·0	Savalaj; 4·0; Sat.	Stage; ..	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Ashtami Fr. Ct. Sud. 13; 5 tl; mq; dg; ch; lib.
Takari; 52·0	Arale; 6·0; Sat.	Arale; 6·0	rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Shenoli; 2·0	Shenoli; 2·0; Sat.	.. 1·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (c); Macchindranath Fr. Ct. Vad. 5; 4 tl; m; 2 mq; dh; 3 gym; ch; lib.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office; Distance. (4)
Koganoḷī—Mrj.—कोगनोळी ..	E; 23·0	7·1; 2294; 410; 1139	Salgare; 1·0
Kokaḷe—Mrj.—कोकळे ..	NE; 35·0	13·9; 3292; 562; 1042	Local; ..
Kokarūḍ—Srl.—कोकरूड ..	W; 12·0	2·0; 3262; 590; 1104	Local; ..
Koḷagiri—Jth.—कोळगिरी ..	NE; 10·0	6·5; 764; 126; 409	Jath; 21·0
Koḷe—Wlu.—कोळे ..	N; 11·0	0·9; 430; 77; 118	Narsingapur; 1·4
Koṇabagī—Jth.—कोणबगी ..	SE; 40·0	1·9; 217; 28; 91	Bijapur; 12·0
Konhoḷī—Srl.—कोन्होली ..	NW; 33·0	1·1; 204; 50; 119	Arale; 6·0
Koregāṃv—Wlu.—कोरेगांव ..	SE; 12·0	2·6; 2249; 418; 1046	Local; ..
Kosārī—Jth.—कोसारी ..	NW; 9·0	13·3; 1580; 288; 580	.. ..
Kotavaḍe—Kpr.—कोतवडे ..	W; 18·0	2·3; 626; 115; 314	Kadegaon; 3·4
Kotīj—Kor.—कोतीज ..	NW; 9·0	1·9; 475; 80; 257	Bhikavadi Kh; 1·0
Kucī—Mrj.—कुची ..	NE; 22·0	8·4; 2668; 464; 1283	Kavathe Mahankal; 2·0
Kuḍaṇūr—Jth.—कुडणूर ..	W; 14·0	3·9; 999; 174; 568	Dafalapur; 3·0
Kukaṭoḷī—Mrj.—कुकटोळी ..	NE; 20·0	7·0; 2009; 354; 778	Salgare; 5·0
Kumaṭhe—Tsv.—कुमठे ..	SE; 7·2	4·4; 3573; 624; 1511	Local; ..

Railway Station ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day.		Motor Stand ; Distance.		Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)		(6)		(7)		(8)	(9)
Salgare;	1·0	Salgare;	1·0; Mon.	Kavathe Mahankal;	9·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Kongaidevi Fr. Ps. Vad. 9; 2 tl; gym; ch; 2 lib.
Kavathe Mahankal;	6·0	Phalapur;	3·0; Thu.	Stage;	..	w;n.	5 Sl (4 pr, m); Cs (c); Yallama Fr. Ps. Vad. 15; 3 tl; mq; dg; dh; gym.
Takari;	33·0	Local;	.. Wed.	Local;	..	W;w; rv.	3 Sl (2 pr, m); Cs; Gauripujan Bdp. Sud. 6; 5 tl; mq; 3 gym; lib; 2 dp.
Jath Road;	26·0	Jath;	21·0; Tue.	Local;	..	W;w.	Sl (pr); Bhairavnath Fr. 3rd Mon. of Srn; 3 tl; mq; 2 gym.
Shenoli;	4·0	Shenoli;	4·0; Sat.	..	..	rv.	Sl (pr); 3 tl.
Bijapur;	12·0	Sankh;	2·4; Mon.	..	3·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Hanuman Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; tl.
Karad;	35·0	Arale;	6·0; Sat.	Arale;	8·0	str.	Sl (pr); tl.
Sangli;	18·0	Tandulvadi;	5·0; Tue.	Stage;	..	w;rv.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs (c); Maruti Lanka Fr. Ct Sud. 15, 4 tl; 2 mq; dg; gym; ch.
..	..	..	..	Kumbhari;	3·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr); Cs (c); Hanuman Jayanti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15, Anuksiddhadev Fr. ct. Sud. 15; 3 tl; lib.
Karad;	7·0	Kadegaon;	3·4; Fri.	..	4·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Jyotirling. Fr. ct. Vad. 5; 5 tl; gym.
Karad;	15·0	Vite;	9·0; Mon.	Stage;	..	W;w.	Sl (pr); Pir Urus Mrg. Sud. 7; 3 tl; gym.
Kavathe Mahankal;	8·0	Kavathe Mahankal;	2·0; Tue.	Stage;	..	W;w.	3 Sl (2 pr, m); 4 Cs (4 mis); Yallamadevi Fr. Mrg. Vad. 7; 6 tl; mq; dg; dh; gym; ch; lib; dp.
Kavathe Mahankal;	20·0	Dafalapur;	3·0; Thu.	..	1·0	w;n.	Sl (pr); Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 1; 3 tl.
Salgare;	5·0	Salgare;	5·0; Mon.	Khanderajuri;	4·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl; gym; ch; lib.
Madhavnagar;	8·0	Sangli;	10·0; Sat.	Stage;	..	w;n.	2 Sl (pr); Cs (mp); Narahari Fr. Vsk. Sud. 15, Margubai Fr. Jt. Sud. 15; 8 tl; mq; 2 gym; ch; 2 lib; dp.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office; Distance. (4)
Kumbhāragāṅv—Kpr.—कुंभारगांव	SW; 13·0	2·7; 535; 91; 309	Devrashtre; 3·0
Kumbhārī—Jth.—कुंभारी ..	NW; 9·0	9·4; 1768; 306; 905	Jath; 9·0
Kuṇḍal—Tsv.—कुंडल ..	NW; 18·0	10·6; 9431; 1692; 2297	Local; ..
Kuṇḍalāpūr—Mrj.—कुंडलापूर ..	NE, 31·0	5·3; 790; 123; 379	Kavathe Mahankal; 8·0
Kuṇḍalavāḍī—Wla.—कुंडलवाडी ..	S; 11·0	1·7; 1756; 315; 756	Yelur; 3·0
Kuṇīkoṇūr—Jth.—कुणीकोणूर ..	NE; 13·0	6·2; 822; 150; 402	Jath; 18·0
Kupavāḍ—Mrj.—कुपवाड ..	NW; 4·0	9·8; 6798; 1022; 1258	Local; ..
Kuraḷap—Wla.—कुरळप ..	S; 10·0	2·8; 3225; 579; 1263	Local; ..
Kurlī—Kpr.—कुर्ली ..	S; 3·0	5·7, 1046; 202; 381	Vite; 3·0
Kusabāvaḍe—Kpr.—कुसबावडे .	SE; 23·0	0·9; 95; 12; 43	Khanapur; 8·0
Lāḍegāṅv—Wla.—लाडेगांव ..	SW; 7·0	1·3; 1169; 209; 305	Local; ..
Laṅgarapeṭh—Mrj.—लंगरपेठ ..	NE; 3·0	4·5; 1098; 197; 526	Kavathe Mahankal; 6·0
Lavaṅgā—Jth.—लवंगा ..	E; 35·0	3·8; 258; 45; 100	.. ..
Leṅgare—Kpr.—लेंगरे ..	NE; 8·4	15·9; 4155; 791; 1797	Local; ..

Railway Station ; Distance. (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day. (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance. (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
Kirloskarvadi; 3·0	Kundal; 1·0; Sun.	Devrashtre; 3·0	w;n.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Sitagiridevi Fr. First Mon. of Mg; tl; m; gym.
Dhalgaon; 21·0	Jath; 9·0; Tue.	Stage; ..	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 4 tl; m; mq; gym; ch; lib.
Kirloskarvadi; 4·0	Local; .. Sun.	Local; ..	W;w; n;str.	4 Sl (3 pr, h); 6 Cs; Parilanath Fr. last Mon. of Srn, Ganapati Fr. Bdp. Sud. 4; 19 tl; 2 m; mq; dg; 2 dh; 5 gym; ch; lib; 2 dp.
Kavathe Mahankal; 12·0	Kavathe Mahankal; 8·0; Tue.	Stage; ..	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 11; 2 tl; gym; ch; lib; dp.
Takari; 22·0	Yelur; 3·0; Sat.	Tandulvadi; 2·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr); 2 Cs (2 mis); tl; mq; 2 dg.
Javali; 18·0	Madgval; 3·0; Fri.	Kolagiri; 2·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr); Cs (m); 2 tl; ch.
Wanlesvadi; 2·0	Sangli; 3·0; Sat.	Wanlesvadi; 2·0	W;w.	5 Sl (4 pr, h); 4 Cs (4 mis); Ladlesahib Pir Urus Mg. Vad. 7; 7 tl; m; mq; dg; dh; gym; ch; 4 lib; dp; Cch.
Takari; 20·0	Local; .. Wed.	Local; ..	W;w.	2 Sl (pr); Cs (mp); Maruti Lanka Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 5 tl; mq; gym; lib.
Kirloskarvadi; 13·0	Vite; 3·0; Mon.	Vite; 3·0	w;n.	2 Sl (pr); Cs (mp); Shivjayanti Fr. Vsk. Sud. 3; 2 tl; gym; lib.
Dhalgaon; 10·0	Jarandi; 1·0; Wed.	Palashi; 2·0	str;	Sl (pr); Bhavani Fr. Last Mon. of Srn; 2 tl.
Takari; 17·0	Aitvade Bk.; 3·0; Tue.	.. 0·2	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Maruti Lanka Fr. Ct. Vad. 3; 2 tl; mq; gym.
Local; 3·0	Dhalgaon; 4·0; Sun.	Dhalgaon; 4·0	W;w; n.	Sl (pr); Hanuman Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 3 tl; gym.
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. 4·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; dg; ch.
Karad; 32·0	Local; .. Sat.	Local; ..	w;n.	4 Sl (3 pr, m); Cs (mp); Pir Urus Ct. Sud. 8; 10 tl; m; mq; dg; ch; 2 lib; 2 dp.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)		Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)				Post Office; Distance. (4)	
Limb—Tsv.—लीब ..	N;	9·0	2·6;	751;	134;	372	Tasgaon;	9·0
Linganūr—Mrj.—लिंगनूर ..	E;	15·0	8·3;	2157;	372;	1147	Mangsuli;	7·0
Lingīvare—Kpr.—लिंगीवरे ..	NE;	44·0	6·6;	848;	148;	393	Dighanchi;	3·0
Loḍhe—Tsv.—लोढे ..	NE;	6·0	0·8;	587;	111;	221	Aravade;	1·0
Lohagāṅv—Jth.—लोहगांव ..	N;	15·0	6·2;	1139;	200;	582	Kanur;	5·0
Loṭīv—Srl.—लोटीव ..	NW;	46·0	2·5;	99;	30;	51	Arale;	25·0
Māḍaguḷe—Kpr.—माडगुळे ..	NE;	43·0	11·6;	1862;	287;	674	Nazare;	3·0
Māḍagyāḷ—Jth.—माडग्याळ ..	NE;	18·0	2·6;	2120;	344;	991	Jath;	18·0
Mādaḷavāḍī—Srl.—मादळवाडी ..	NW;	8·0	0·2;	77;	15;	24	Shirala;	9·0
Mādhavanagar—Mrj.—माधवनगर	NW;	7·0	0·2;	5811;	1208;	181	Local;	..
Māhulī—Kpr.—माहुली ..	N;	9·0	7·4;	1848,	313,	726	Local;	..
Mālagāṅv—Mrj.—मालगांव ..	NE;	6·0	21·7;	11540;	2011;	5063	Local;	..
Maḷaṇagāṅv—Mrj.—मळणगाव ..	N;	20·0	5·3;	2283;	415;	935	Kavathe Mahankal;	7·0
Mālevāḍī—Wla.—मालेवाडी ..	S;	10·0	2·8;	1228;	211;	475	Tandulvadi;	1·0
Mallāḷ—Jth.—मल्लाळ ..	S;	2·0	2·7;	204;	39;	84	Jath;	2·0
Mallevāḍī—Mrj.—मल्लेवाडी ..	E;	8·0	5·4;	2180;	344;	1093	Malgaon;	2·0
Maṇadūr—Srl.—मणदूर ..	NW;	24·0	5·1;	1435;	305;	479	Arale;	3·0
Mānamoḍī—Mrj.—मानमोडी ..	NW;	8·0	1·1;	445;	86;	131	Budhagaon;	5·0

Railway Station ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day.		Motor Stand ; Distance.		Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)		(6)		(7)		(8)	(9)
Bhilvadi;	9·0	Visapur;	5·0; Fri.	Local;	...	w;n.	SI (pr); pyt; Cs (c); 2 tl; dh; gym; 2 lib.
Arag;	6·0	Arag;	6·0; Thu.	Arag;	6·0	w;n.	SI (pr); Cs (c); tl; mq; gym.
Sangola;	28·0	Dighanchi;	3·0; Sun.	Dighanchi;	3·0	w;rv.	2 SI (pr); 3 tl; ch; lib.
Bhilvadi;	13·0	Tasgaon;	6·0; Mon.	Aravade;	1·4	w;rv.	SI (pr); Cs (c); Maruti Bhandara Srn. Sud. 8; tl; lib.
Bijapur;	17·0	Kanur;	5·0; Mon.	Sangola;	3·0	W;w.	SI (pr); Cs (mp); Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 2 tl; dh; gym.
Karad;	36·0	Pet-Lond;	3·0; Fri.	Arale;	24·0	str.	SI (pr); tl.
Warud;	12·0	Basvadi;	2·0; Thu.	Local;	..	W;w.	2 SI (pr); pyt; Cs (c); Khandoba Fr. Mrg. Vad. 6; 8tl; lib.
Javali;	20·0	..	.. Fri.	Local;	..	W;n.	2 SI (pr); Cs (mp); 4 tl; mq; gym; dp.
Takari;	29·0	Shirasi;	3·0; Fri.	Shirasi;	3·0	W;w.	SI (pr); tl.
Local;	..	Budhagaon;	1·0; Sun.	Local;	..	w;pl.	2 SI (pr, h); Shivajayanti Fr. Phg. Vad. 3; 3 tl; gym; 3 lib; 7 dp.
Kirloskarvadi;	24·0	Local;	.. Wed.	Local;	..	W;w.	4 SI (2 pr, m, h); pyt; 3 Cs (3 mis); 7 tl; m; mq; dg; dh; ch; lib; 2 dp (1 vet).
Miraj;	7·0	Local;	.. Fri.	Stage;	..	W;w.	5 SI (4 pr, h); 2 Cs (2 mis); Hajratbaba Urus Tue. after Ct. Sud. 15; 6 tl; m; mq; dg; 4 gym; ch; 2 lib; 4 dp; Cch.
Kavathe Mahankal;	12·0	Shirdhon;	2·0; Thu.	..	2·0	rv; str.	3 SI (2 pr, m); Cs (c); 3 tl; mq; dg; gym; ch; 2 dp.
Takari;	20·0	Tandulvadi;	1·0; Tue.	..	0·3	W;w.	SI (pr); 2 Cs; 3 tl; dg; gym; lib.
Jath Road;	17·0	Jath;	2·0; Tue.	Jath;	2·0	W;w.	SI (pr); Siddheshvardev Fr. Srn; 5 tl.
Arag;	4·0	Malgaon;	2·0; Fri.	Malgaon;	2·0	w;n; str.	2 SI (pr); Cs (c); tl; m; mq; dg; 2 lib.
Takari;	43·0	Arale;	3·0; Sat.	Arale;	3·0	w;rv.	SI (pr); Cs (c); 4 tl; gym.
Madhavnagar;	6·0	Miraj;	7·0; Tue.	..	1·4	W;w.	SI (pr); Cs (c); Narsoba Fr. Ct; 2 tl.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office; Distance. (4)
Maṇerājūrī—Tsv.—मणेराजूरी ..	E; 10·0	20·8; 8019; 1380; 3474	Local; ..
Māṅgaḷe—Srl.—मांगळे ..	S; 5·0	10·0; 5977; 1122; 2734	Local; ..
Maṅgaruḷ—Kpr.—मंगरुळ ..	SE; 7·0	2·2; 931; 170; 338	Vite; 5·0
Māṅgaruḷ—Srl.—मांगरुळ ..	W; 8·2	3·5; 1727; 328; 802	Bilashi; 0·4
Māṇikanāḷ—Jth.—माणिकनाळ ..	E; 34·0	2·9; 273; 51; 112	.. ..
Māñjarḍe—Tsv.—मांजर्डे ..	NE; 14·0	6·2; 3952; 729; 1656	Local; ..
Masūcī Vāḍī—Wla.—मसूची वाडी	NE; 8·0	2·2; 1354; 231; 569	Borgaon; 2·0
Matakuṇaki—Tsv.—मतकुणकी ..	SE; 6·0	3·1; 773; 132; 261	Kavathe Ekand; 2·0
Māyathaḷ—Jth.—मायथळ .	NE; 13·0	8·7; 166; 30; 75	Jath; 16·0
Meṇḍhegiri—Jth.—मेंढेगिरी ..	SE; 5·0	9·2; 1386; 240; 431	Jath; 4·0
Meṇi—Srl.—मेणी ..	NW; 13·2	4·5; 1567; 312; 763	Charan; 6·0
Mhaisāḷ (M)—Mrj.—म्हैसाळ (मि)	NE; 20·0	13·8; 461; 62; 198	.. ..
Mhaisāḷ Sāṅgalī—Mrj.—म्हैसाळ सांगली	SE; 7·0	2·4; 6039; 1145; 2429	Miraj; 6·0
Miraj (Non-Municipal Area)—Mrj.—मिरज (बिगर नागरी विभाग)	.. ..	16·5; 5520; 1099; 716	Local; ..
Miraj (Urban Area II)—Mrj.—मिरज (नागरी विभाग २)	HQ. ..	16·4; 53345; 9929; 5337	Local; ..

Railway Station ; Distance. (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day. (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance. (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
Madhavnagar; 13·0	Local; .. Wed.	Local; ..	W;w; n.	8 Sl (7 pr, h); 2 Cs (2 mis); Yallamadevi Fr. Ps. Vad. 7; 3 tl; mq; dh; 3 gym; ch; lib; 3 dp.
Kolhapur; 17·0	Local; .. Wed.	Local; ..	w;rv.	4 Sl (3 pr, h); 5 Cs (c); 9 tl; mq; 2 gym; ch; lib; 3 dp.
Kirloskarvadi; 12·0	Vite; 5·0; Mon.	.. 2·0	n.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Vithoba Fr. Asd. Sud. 15; 3 tl; mq; gym; lib.
Takari; 30·0	Bilashi; 0·4; Sun.	Stage; ..	W;w; rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 7 tl.
.. ..	.. .. ..	Sankh; 10·0	w;n.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; mq; dg; ch.
Bhilvadi; 17·0	Local; .. Tue.	Local; ..	w;n.	3 Sl (2 pr, m); 3 Cs (c); Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15, Birulsiddha Fr. Mg. Vad, 15; 4 tl; mq; gym; lib.dp.
Takari; 4·0	Borgaon; 2·0; Fri.	Borgaon; 3·0	w;rv.	2 Sl (pr); 2 Cs; Balbhim Fr. Kt. Sud. 2; 2 tl; gym.
Madhavnagar; 10·0	Tasgaon; 4·0; Mon.	Kavathe Ekand; 2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs (c); 4 tl; lib.
Jath Road; 20·0	Madgyal; 2·0; Fri.	Kolagiri; 4·0	W;w.	2 tl; ch.
Jath Road; 19·0	Jath; 4·0; Tue.	Local; ..	W,w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; mq.
Karad; 24·0	Charan; 6·0; Tue.	Yelgaon; 3·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Ninai Fr. Ps. Vad. 3; 3 tl.
Dhulgaon; 6·0	Kavathe Mahankal; 4·0; Tue.	.. 5·0	W;w.	tl.
Miraj; 2·0	Local; .. Mon.	Local; ..	w;rv.	3 Sl (2 pr, m); 3 Cs (3 mis); Kanakeshvar Fr. Phg. Sud. 3 to 5; 9 tl; m; mq; dg; 3 gym; ch; lib; 3 dp.
Local; ..	Local; .. Tue.	.. ..	W;w.	..
Local; ..	Local; .. Wed.	Local; ..	W;w; pl.	32 Sl (27 pr, 5 h); 3 Cs (mp, 2 mis); Mirsaheb Urus Ct. Vad. 5; 10 tl; 3 m; 20 mq; 2 dh; 10 gym; 4 lib; 26 dp; 2 Cch.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office; Distance. (4)
Miravāḍ—Jth.—मिरवाड ..	SW; 11·0	4·5; 481; 95; 288	Dafalapur; 2·0
Moghamavāḍī—Mrj.—मोघमवाडी	NE; 32·0	1·2; 363; 68; 161	Kokale; 3·0
Mohare—Srl.—मोहरे ..	NW; 15·0	0·6; 436; 86; 214	Charan; 2·0
Mohī—Kpr.—मोही ..	E; 16·0	3·1; 598; 108; 316	Khanapur; 2·0
Morabagī—Jth.—मोरबगी ..	E; 33·0	7·4; 707; 125; 361	Kannur; 9·0
Morāḷe Peḍ—Tsv.—मोराळे पेड ..	NE; 16·0	2·4; 793; 132; 405	Tasgaon; 10·0
Morāḷe Rājāpūr—Tsv.—मोराळे राजापूर	NW; 15·0	4·1; 796; 132; 326	Avarade; 5·0
Mucaṇḍī—Jth.—मुचंडी ..	SE; 9·0	26·3; 2787; 539; 1143	.. ..
Nāgāṁv—Wla.—नागांव ..	SE; 12·0	2·0; 1264; 226; 448	Dhavali; 1·0
Nāgāṁv Kavaṭhe—Tsv.—नागांव कवटे.	SE; 4·0	3·6; 1545; 241; 595	Tasgaon; 4·0
Nāgāṁv Nimaṇī—Tsv.—नागांव निमणी.	SW; 4·5	2·0; 1134; 194; 345	Tasgaon; 3·4
Nāgarāḷe—Tsv.—नागराळे ..	W; 21·0	2·5; 1813; 295; 530	Kirloskarvadi; 4·0
Nāgaṭhāṇe—Tsv.—नागठाणे ..	W; 17·6	6·0; 3420; 596; 1194	Local; ..
Nāgevāḍī—Kpr.—नागेवाडी ..	N; 5·0	5·0; 1954; 368; 823	Vite; 5·0
Nāndolī—Srl.—नांदोली ..	NW; 31·0	3·8; 520; 121; 368	Arale; 6·0
Nāndre—Mrj.—नांद्रे ..	NW; 12·0	12·1; 6719; 1200; 1864	Local; ..

Railway Station ; Distance.	Weekly Bazar ; Distance Bazar Day.	Motor Stand ; Distance	Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Kavathe Mahankal; 12·0	Dalalapur; 2·0; Thu.	Stage, 2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Mahalingappa Fr. Phg. Vad. 12; 2 tl.
Langarpeth; 3·0	Dhalgaon; 7·0; Sun.	Alkud; 4·0	W,w.	Sl (pr).
Takari; 34·0	Charan; 2·0; Thu.	Stage; ..	rv.	Sl (pr): Cs (c); tl.
Karad; 42·0	Khanapur; 2·0; Fri.	Khanapur; 2·0	W;n; str.	Sl (pr); Pir Urus Ct. Sud. 4; 2 tl; lib.
Minchnal; 12·0	Kamnur; 8·0; Mon.	Sankh; 7·0	W,w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; dh; ch.
Kirloskarvadi; 8·0	Palus; 6·0; Tue.	.. 2·4	w;n.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl; m; gym; lib.
Bhilvadi; 22·0	Ped; 2·0; Sun.	Borgaon; 3·0	w,rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl; gym; lib.
.. ..	.. .. ..	Stage; 0·1	W;w.	2 Sl (pr); 2 Cs; Shankarling Dev Fr. Vsk. Sud. 3; 5 tl; m; mq; gym; ch; lib.
Sangli; 18·0	Bigani, 3·0; Wed.	Bavachi; 3·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); Shidoba Fr. Ct. Sud. 1; 2 tl; lib.
Nandre; 4·0	Tasgaon, 4·0, Mon.	Stage; 0·6	W.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs (c); Nagnath Fr. Mg. Vad. 11; 4 tl; gym; ch; lib; dp.
Bhilvadi; 2·0	Tasgaon, 3·4; Mon.	Tasgaon; 0·1	w;rv.	Sl (pr), Cs (c); Nagnath Fr. Mg. Vad. 15; 4 tl; ch.
Kirloskarvadi; 4·0	Walwa, 2·0; Fri.	Kirloskar-vadi, 4·0	w;rv.	2 Sl (pr); 2 Cs (2 c); Bhairavnath Fr. Phg. Sud. 8; 4 tl; m; gym; ch; 3 lib.
Kirloskarvadi, 4·0	Walwa; 2·0; Fri.	.. 5·0	w;rv.	2 Sl (pr); 2 Cs (mp, c); Bhairavnath Fr. Ct. Sud. 1; 11 tl; m; 2 mq; dh; 3 gym; lib; dp.
Kirloskarvadi; 14·0	Mahuli; 4·0; Wed.	Local; ..	W;n.	2 Sl (pr); Cs (mp); Nagnath Fr. Ct. Sud. 1; 6 tl; mq; dh; 2 gym.
Karad; 35·0	Atale; 6·0; Sat.	Atale; 8·0	W,w.	Sl (pr), Jyotirling Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 4 tl.
Local; .	.. .. ..	Local; ..	W;rv.	6 Sl (4 pr, m, h); 3 Cs (c, mp, mis); Khabja Kabir Urus An; 3 tl; m; mq; dg; gym; ch; 2 lib; 2 dp.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office; Distance. (4)
Nāṅgoḷe—Mrj.—नांगोळे ..	NE; 26·0	7·4; 1127, 195; 386	Kavathe Mahankal; 5·0
Narasiṅgapūr—Wla.—नरसिंगपूर ..	N; 7·0	2·0; 1638, 309; 578	Local; ..
Naravāḍ—Mrj.—नरवाड ..	SE; 9·0	7·2; 2820; 473; 1114	Local; ..
Nāṭhavaḍe—Srl.—नाठवडे ..	NW; 16·0	1·8, 1058, 200, 536	Bilashi; 4·0
Nāṭolī—Srl.—नाटोली ..	SW; 6·0	1·6; 1284, 243; 580	Shirala; 5·0
Nelakaraṅjī—Kpr.—नेलकरंजी ..	E; 20·0	18·1, 3486; 595, 1537	Local; ..
Nerle—Wla.—नेर्ले ..	NW; 4·4	14·0, 9903, 1766; 3058	Local, ..
Nerlī—Kpr.—नेर्ली ..	W; 17·0	4·4, 1299, 252, 634	Kadegaon, 3·0
Nevarī—Kpr.—नेवरी ..	NW; 5·0	13·0, 4086, 761, 1925	Local; ..
Nhāvī—Kpr.—न्हावी ..	W; 16·0	4·3; 1209; 229, 726	Kadegaon; 2·0
Nigaḍī—Srl.—निगडी ..	N; 6·0	3·0, 1175, 216· 414	Shirala, 6·0
Nigaḍī Bk.—Jth.—निगडी बु ..	NE; 25·0	6·7, 624; 109, 293	Umadi; 7·0
Nigaḍī Kh.—Jth.—निगडी खु ..	NE; 6·0	6·7, 1334; 227; 581	.. ..
Nilajī—Mrj.—निलजी ..	SW; 3·0	2·1; 137; 27. 53	Miraj, 5·0
Nimaj—Mrj.—निमज ..	NE; 36·0	4·1; 502; 83; 216	Kavathe Mahankal; 5·0
Nimaṇī—Tsv.—निमणी ..	W; 4·0	4·3; 1746; 325; 643	Tasgaon; 3·0

Railway Station ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day		Motor Stand ; Distance.		Water	Institutions and other information
(5)		(6)		(7)		(8)	(9)
Kavathe Mahankal;	3·0	Kavathe Mahankal;	5·0, Tue.	..	2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl, mq; dg.
Bhavani Nagar;	5·0	Local;	.. Tue.	..	2·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); Narsinha Fr. Vsk. Sud. 10; 5 tl; gym; ch; 2 lib, 3 dp.
Shedbal;	2·0	Bagwad;	4·0, Sun.	Local;	..	W;w.	Sl (pr), 2 Cs (mp, mis), Laxmidevi Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 3 tl, mq; dg; 2 gym; lib.
Takari;	33·0	Charan;	2·0; Thu.	Stage;	..	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 3 tl; gym; lib.
Takari,	26·0	Sagaon;	1·0; Sun.	Local;	..	W,w.	2 Sl (pr); Cs (c); Bhairavnath Fr. Vsk; 4 tl; gym; lib.
Dhalgaon;	16·0	Local;	.. Sat.	Local;	..	w;rv.	7 Sl (pr); 5 tl, 2 mq; 2 lib.
Takari;	14·0	Local;	.. Tue	..	0·4	W,w.	9 Sl (6 pr, m, 2h); 9 Cs; 6 tl; m; 2 mq; 5 gym; ch; 2 lib, dp.
Karad;	6·0	Kadegaon;	3·0, Fri.	Kadegaon;	3·0	w;n.	Sl (pr); Cs. (c); Pir Urus Mrg. Sud. 15, 4 tl; 2 mq; dg; dh; gym; ch
Karad	20·0	Vite,	4·4; Mon.	Stage;	2·0	W,w.	4 Sl (pr); Cs (c); Nath Fr. Vsk. Sud. 8, Vetalba Fr. Vsk. Sud. 3; 9 tl, mq; dh; 2 gym, ch; lib.
Karad,	12·0	Kadegaon;	2·0; Fri.	Kadegaon;	2·0	w,n.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs (c), 5 tl; 2 mq; dh; gym; ch; lib
Takari;	26·0	Shirala;	6·0; Mon.	Shirasi;	3·0	W;w.	Sl (pr), Cs (c); Jyotirling Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 4 tl; lib.
..	..	Umadi;	7·0, Sun.	Stage ;	..	W;w.	2 Sl (pr); 4 tl.
..	..	..	.. ..	Stage;	..	W,w.	Sl (pr); Cs; Pir Urus Mg; 5 tl; mq, dg, dh; ch.
Miraj;	3·0	Miraj;	3·0; Tue.	Miraj;	2·0	rv.	tl.
Kavathe Mahankal,	8·0	Dhalgaon;	8·0, Sun.	..	0·1	w;n.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Bhilvadi;	4·0	Tasgaon;	3·0; Mon.	Stage;	..	w;rv	Sl (pr), 2 Cs (c), Hanuman Jayanti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; mq; dh; gym; ch; lib.

Village Name.	Direction; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists.	Post Office; Distance.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Nimasoḍ—Kpr.—निमसोड ..	W; 16·0	1·5; 1057; 187; 550	Kadegaon; 2·0
Nimbaḷak—Tsv.—निंबळक ..	NW; 13·2	2·0; 1087; 197; 398	Tasgaon; 13·0
Nimbavaḍe—Kpr.—निंबवडे ..	NE; 44·0	16·3; 2809; 553; 969	Local; ..
Nivaḷe—Srl.—निवळे ..	NW; 51·0	3·6; 92; 25; 40	Arale; 22·0
Ojharḍe—Wla.—ओझर्डे ..	W; 6·0	3·1; 1605; 305; 634	Local; ..
Pācagaṇī—Srl.—पाचगणी ..	NW; 21·0	2·3; 587; 109; 309	Panumbre Tarf Varun; 5·0
Pācumbrī—Srl.—पाचुंब्री ..	N; 12·0	3·9; 1284; 272; 411	Shirala; 11·0
Pāḍaḷī—Kpr.—पाडळी ..	SW; 23·0	3·0; 745; 132; 326	Chinchani-wangi; 2·4
Pāḍaḷī—Srl.—पाडळी	N; 3·0	4·7; 1643; 328; 849	Shirala; 2·0
Pāḍaḷī—Tsv.—पाडळी	N; 16·0	2·9; 846; 160; 420	Hatnur; 3·0
Padamāḷe—Mrj.—पदमाळे	NW; 10·0	1·7; 1146; 164; 295	Sangli; 3·0
Paḷasakhel—Kpr.—पळसखेल	NE; 45·0	5·8; 667; 115; 307	Dighanchi; 2·4
Paḷaśī—Kpr.—पळशी	SE; 21·0	6·4; 1301; 215; 569	Tasgaon; 3·0
Palūs—Tsv.—पलूस ..	NW; 15·0	14·1; 10629; 1812; 3146	Local; ..
Pāṇḍozarī—Jth.—पांडोझरी ..	E; 21·0	5·6; 593; 94; 191	Bijjargi; 4·0
Paṇumbre Tarf Śirāḷe—Srl.—पणुंब्रे तर्फ शिराळे	N; 10·0	4·1; 1391; 267; 784	Shirala; 10·0
Paṇumbre Tarf Vāruṇ—Srl.—पणुंब्रे तर्फ वारुण	NW; 19·1	6·6; 2953; 550; 1455	Local; ..

Railway Station ; Distance. (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day. (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
Karad; 10·0	Kadegaon; 2·0; Fri.	Kadegaon; 2·0	w;n.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Pir Urus Ps. Vad. 7; 3 tl; mq, gym; ch; lib.
Kirloskarvadi; 9·0	Palus; 7·0; Tue.	.. 3·3	w;n.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs (c); 2 tl; gym; 2 lib.
Sangola; 24·0	Local; .. Tue.	Stage; ..	W;w; n.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Hanuman Jayanti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 13 tl; 2 lib.
Karad; 34·0	Pet-Lond; 4·0; Fri.	Arale; 29·0	str.	Sl (pr); tl.
Takari; 17·0	Peth; 1·0; Wed.	.. 3·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Maruti Fr. Ct. Vad. 7; 7 tl; m; gym; lib.
Takari; .. 43·0	Charan; 7·0; Thu.	Charan; 4·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (gr); Maruti Fr. Ct Sud. 15; 2 tl.
Karad; 22·0	Shirala; 11·0; Mon.	.. 1·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 4 tl; gym; lib.
Bhavani Nagar 2·0	Shenoli; 4·0; Sat.	Sonkire; 1·0	W;n; str.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Ram Fr. Ct. Sud 9; 5 tl; gym; lib.
Takari; 22·0	Shirala; 2·0; Mon.	Shirala; 3·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Shidoba Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 6 tl; 2 gym; ch; 2 lib.
Bhilvadi; 17·0	Hatnur; 3·0; Wed.	.. 4·0	w;n.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs (c); Siddheshvar Fr. Kt. Sud. 12; 3 tl; mq; gym; ch; 2 lib.
Sangli; 3·0	Sangli; 3·0; Sat.	Sangli; 3·0	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl; mq.
Sangola; 16·0	Dighanchi; 2·4; Sun.	Stage; 1·4	W;w.	2 Sl (pr); 3 tl; ch; lib.
Dhalgaon; 13·0	Khanapur; 6·0; Fri.	Stage; 0·1	W;w.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs (c); Siddheshvar Fr. Ct. Sud. 8; 5 tl; m; 2 mq; lib.
Kirloskarvadi; 3·0	Local; .. Tue.	Stage; ..	W;w.	9 Sl (8 pr, h); 15 Cs Dhondibuva Fr. Ct. Vad. 12; 13 tl; m; mq; dg; dh; 8 gym; ch; 9 lib; 4 dp;
Bijapur; 20·0	Sankh; 2·0; Mon.	Sankh; 3·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); 7 tl; m; mq; dg.
Karad; 25·0	Shirala; 10·0; Mon.	.. 2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; Bhiroba Fr. Kt. Vad. 30 to Mrg. Sud. 2; 7 tl; gym; 2 lib.
*Takari; 38·0	Charan; 1·4; Thu.	Charan; 1·0	W;w.	4 Sl (pr); 2 Cs (c); Wakai Fr. Phg. Vad. 2, Jyotirling Fr. Mrg. Sud. 15; 7 tl; 3 gym; lib; dp.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travel'ing distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office; Distance. (4)
Pāre—Kpr.—पारे ..	SE; 6·0	6·5; 2023; 346; 686	Local; ..
Pāṭagāṅv—Mrj.—पाटगांव ..	N; 10·0	1·5; 800; 149; 336	Soni; 0·4
Pāvalevāḍī—Srl.—पावलेवाडी ..	W, 5·0	1·7; 436; 89; 230	Shirala; 5·0
Peḍ—Tsv.—पेड .	NE; 15·0	20·4; 6127; 1092; 3055	Local; ..
Peṭh—Wla.—पेठ ..	W; 2·7	11·5; 8613, 1526; 2702	Local; ..
Peṭhasurāpūr—Kpr.—पेठसुरापूर ..	NE, 46·1	N.A.; 626; 118; 70	Dighanchi; ..
Peṭ Loṇḍ—Srl.—पेट लोंड ..	NW; 42·0	3·7; 582; 135; 272	Arale, 20·0
Phakīravāḍī—Srl.—फकीरवाडी ..	S; 3·4	0·8; 151; 29; 52	Aitvade; 4·0
Phupere—Srl.—फुपेरे ..	W; 8·0	0·9; 875; 182; 251	Bilashi; 3·0
Pimparī Bk.—Kpr.—पिंपरी बु. ..	NE; 32·0	7·8; 951; 195; 312	Kharsundi; 7·0
Pimparī Kh.—Kpr.—पिंपरी खु. ..	NE; 46·0	8·9; 1280; 225; 482	Atapadi; 6·0
Pokharṇī—Wla.—पोखर्णी ..	SE; 11·0	2·0; 830; 148; 393	Local; ..
Pratāpūr—Jth.—प्रतापूर .	NW; 16·0	3·9; 450; 75; 95	.. ..
Punadī Tarf Tāsagāṅv—Tsv.—पुनदी तर्फ तासगांव.	NE; 3·4	4·7; 1219; 223; 679	Chinchani; 2·0

Railway Station ; Distance. (5)		Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day. (6)		Motor Stand ; Distance. (7)		Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Kirloskarvadi;	14·0	Vite;	5·0; Mon.	Karve;	5·0	w;n.	3 Sl (2 pr, h); Cs (t); Vijaya Dashami Fr. An. Sud. 10, Ganesh Fr. Bdp. Sud. 4; 8 tl; mq; dh; gym; ch; 3 lib; dp.
Budhagaon;	6·0	Soni;	0·4; Mon.	Budhagaon;	0·6	W;w; n.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Siddheshvar Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 2 tl; dh; ch; lib; dp.
Takari;	26·0	Shirala;	5·0; Mon.	Local;	..	w.	Sl (pr); tl; m; gym.
Bhilvadi;	22·0	Local;	.. Sun.	Stage;	..	W;w; n.	8 Sl (7 pr, h); 5 Cs (5c); Viroba Fr. Mg. Sud. 1 to 10; 23 tl; m; 2 mq; 2 gym; ch; 4 lib.
Takari;	11·0	Local;	.. Wed.	..	0·4	W;n.	9 Sl (7 pr, m, h); 10 Cs (10 mis); Mankeshvar and Khandeshvar Fr. Phg. Sud. 2; 22 tl; m; 4 mq; dg; 6 gym; ch; 2 lib; 4 dp.
Sangola;	25·0	Mahud;	14·0; Thu.	..	0·1	W;w; n.	2 tl.
Karad;	40·0	Local;	.. Fri.	Arale;	20 0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs (c, mp); 2 tl; mq.
Takari;	23·0	Shirala;	3 0; Mon.	..	1 4	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; mq; dg.
Takari;	30·0	Bilashi;	3·0; Sun.	..	1·0	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 3 tl; gym.
Sangola;	28·0	Kaledhon;	5·0; Tue.	..	3 0	W;n; str.	Sl (pr); Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; tl; mq; gym; lib.
Sangola;	12·0	Atapadi;	6·0; Sat.	Atapadi;	6·0	W;w.	3 Sl (pr); Cs (c); 3 tl; lib.
Sangli;	15·0	Bavachi;	1·0; Tue.	Bavachi;	2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); 3 tl.
..	..	..	.. ..	Dhawad-vadi;	2·4	W;w; n.	Sl (pr); Pir Urus Phg. Vad. 5; tl.
Bhilvadi;	10·0	Tasgaon;	3·0; Mon.	Tasgaon;	3·4	W;w.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs (c); Pir Urus First Thu. of Ct; 3 tl; 2 m; mq; ch; lib.

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)
Punadī Tarf Vāḷavā—Tsv.—पुनदी तर्फ वाळवा.	W; 22·0	2·7; 2278; 369; 689	Chinchani; 2·0
Punavat—Srl.—पुनवत ..	SW; 10·0	1·6; 1076; 196; 399	Bilashi; 5·0
Rājāpūr—Tsv.—राजापूर ..	NW; 7·0	2·7; 1764; 310; 668	Tasgaon; 8·0
Rājevāḍī—Kpr.—राजेवाडी ..	NE; 49·0	7·6; 1198; 210; 281	Dighanchi; 5·0
Rāmapūr—Jth.—रामपूर ..	W; 2·4	8·4; 905; 159; 340	.. ..
Rāmāpūr—Kpr.—रामापूर ..	SW; 12·0	3·1; 1518; 277; 711	Devrashtre; 3·0
Rāñjaṇī—Mrj.—रांजणी ..	NE; 30·0	16·7; 4598; 794; 1298	Local; ..
Rasulavāḍī—Mrj.—रसुलवाडी ..	N; 9·0	0·8; 267; 45; 124	Budhagaon; 5·0
Rāyagāṅv—Kpr.—रायगांव ..	NW; 18·0	2·4; 854; 157; 368	Shalgaon; 3·0
Rāyevāḍī—Mrj.—रायेवाडी ..	NE; 38·0	3·8; 505; 95; 287	Kavathe Mahankal; 5·0
Reḍ—Srl.—रेड ..	E, 2·0	3·1; 971; 196; 218	Shirala; 2·0
Reṇāvī—Kpr.—रेणावी .	E; 6·0	6·4; 1901; 342; 835	Local; ..
Reṭhare Dharaṇ—Wla.—रेठरे धरण	W; 5·0	9·6; 4257; 767, 1107	Local; ..
Reṭhare Haraṇākṣ—Wla.—रेठरे हरणाक्ष.	NE, 6·0	6·5; 3740; 694; 1481	Local; ..
Revaṇagāṅv—Kpr.—रेवणगांव ..	E; 8·0	4·8; 1162; 197; 633	Renavi 2·0
Revanāḷ—Jth.—रेवनाळ ..	N; 6·0	6·0; 1143; 168; 455	.. ..
Riḷe—Srl.—रिळे ..	W; 7·0	3·4; 1866; 376; 797	Shirala; 7·0
Rundhīv—Srl.—रुंधीव ..	NW; 52·0	7·0; 112; 25; 36	Arale; 22·0

Railway Station; Distance. (5)		Weekly Bazar; Distance Bazar Day. (6)		Motor Stand; Distance (7)		Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
Bhilvadi;	10·0	Tasgaon;	3·0; Mon.	Tasgaon;	3·0	rv.	3 Sl (pr); 3 Cs; Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15, Bhiroba Fr. Phg. Vad. 8; 9 tl; 3 m; dg; 2 gym; ch; 2 lib.
Takari;	30·0	Bilashi;	5·0; Sun.	..	3·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl; lib.
Bhilvadi;	9·0	Palus;	6·0; Tue.	Borgaon;	1·4	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); Pir Urus Ps; 3 tl; mq; gym; ch.
Pandharpur;	36·0	Dighanchi;	5·0; Sun.	Dighanchi;	5·0	w;n.	2 Sl (pr); Cs (c); 3 tl; ch; lib.
..	..	..	.. ..	Jath;	2·2	W;n.	2 Sl (Pr); 3 tl; ch.
Takari;	6·0	Kundal;	5·0; Sun.	Devrashtre;	3·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Hanuman Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; mq; gym.
Local;	1·4	Local;	1·4; Sat.	..	2·0	W;w.	6 Sl (4 pr, m, h); 2 Cs (2 mis); Mhasoba Fr. Ct. Sud. 5; 4 tl; m; dh; ch; lib.
Madhavnagar;	6·0	Sangli;	7·0; Sat.	Kavalapur;	1·4	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Karad;	14·0	Shalgaon;	3·0; Sun.	..	0·4	W;w. n.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 3 tl; dh; gym.
Dhalgaon;	6·0	Dhalgaon;	6·0; Sun.	..	..	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; gym; ch.
Takari;	18·0	Shirala;	2·0; Mon.	Stage;	..	W;w; n.	Sl (pr); pyt; 2 Cs (2 c); 5 tl; gym; lib.
Kirloskarvadi;	24·0	Vite;	6·0; Mon.	Stage;	..	W;w.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs (mp); Mahashivratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 11; 2 tl; mq; gym; ch; 2 lib.
Takari;	14·0	Peth;	5·0; Wed.	Local;	..	W;w.	3 Sl (pr); 4 Cs (c); Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 14 tl; m; mq; dh; 4 gym; 3 lib; dp.
Bhavani Nagar;	3·0	Bhavani Nagar;	3·0; Fri.	..	2·4	W;rv.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs (c); Jangali Maharaj Fr. Vsk. Sud. 15; 4 tl; m; mq; 2 gym; ch; lib.
Karad;	32·0	Khanapur;	6·0; Fri.	..	1·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 3 tl; lib.
..	..	..	.. ..	Stage;	1·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Biroba Fr. Ct. Sud. 1; 3 tl; mq; ch.
Takari;	28·0	Bilashi;	3·0; Sun.	Stage;	..	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 6 tl; gym.
Karad;	35·0	Pet-Lond;	5·0; Fri.	Arale;	30·0	str.	Sl (pr); tl.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office; Distance. (4)
Sāgāṅv—Srl.—सागांव ..	SW; 8·0	3·3; 2971; 519; 1059	Local; ..
Saholī—Kpr.—सहोली ..	W; 15·0	3·2; 1195; 196; 578	Kadegaon; 3·0
Sākharāḷe—Wla.—साखराळे .	N; 2·0	4·7; 2214; 392; 630	Local; ..
Śāḷagāṅv—Kpr.—शाळगांव ..	NW; 21·0	1·4; 3267; 602; 1509	Local; ..
Salagare—Mrj.—सलगरे ..	E; 23·0	12·4; 4391; 801; 1804	Local; ..
Sāḷśinge—Kpr.—साळशिंगे ..	NE; 6·3	6·0; 1535; 275; 751	Vite; 7·0
Sālekirī—Jth.—सालेकिरी ..	E; 6·0	4·7; 938; 175; 489	Jath; 7·0
Samaḍoḷī—Mrj.—समडोळी ..	W; 11·0	5·3; 4442; 793; 1344	Local; ..
Sāṃbaravāḍī—Mrj.—सांबरवाडी	N; 10·0	0·7; 332; 49; 166	Kumathe; ..
Sanamaḍī—Jth.—सनमडी ..	NE; 12·0	6·5, 1202; 180; 490	Jath; 21·0
Sāṅgalī—(Non-Municipal Area)—Mrj.—सांगली (बिगर नागरी विभाग)	W; 7·0	11·0; 1510; 365; 312	Local; ..
Sāṅgalī (Urban Area I)—Mrj.—सांगली (नागरी विभाग १)	W; 7·0	11·0; 73838; 14972; 2776	Local; ..
Sāṅgalīvāḍī Mrj.—सांगलीवाडी ..	W; 7·3	5·2; 477; 74; 118	Local; ..
Sāṅgole—Kpr.—सांगोले ..	NE; 7·2	2·4; 539; 99; 286	Vejegaon; 2·0
Saṅkh—Jth.—संख ..	E; 28·0	22·2; 4285; 691; 1946	Bijjargi; 21·0

Railway Station ; Distance. (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day. (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance. (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Takari; 29·0	Local; .. Sun.	Stage; ..	W;rv.	4 Sl (2 pr, m, h); pyt ;3 Cs (c); 7 tl; m; dg; lib; dp.
Karad; 15·0	Kadegaon; 3·0; Fri.	.. 0·3	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Maruti Fr. Bdp. Vad. 8; 6 tl; m; mq; dg; gym; ch; lib.
Takari; 11·0	Uran Islampur; 2·0; Sun; Thu.	.. 1·4	W;w.	2 Sl (pr); Cs (c); 6 tl; mq; gym; lib.
Karad; 8·0	Local; .. Sun.	Local; ..	W;w.	3 Sl (2 pr, h); Cs (mp); 4 tl; m; mq; gym; ch; lib.
Local; ..	Local; .. Mon.	Kavathe Mahankal; 12·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); 3 Cs; 8 tl; mq; dh; gym; 3 lib; 4 dp.
Kirloskarvadi; 23·0	Vite; 7·0; Mon.	Vite; 6·3	W;n.	2 Sl (pr); 2 Cs (mp, c); Revansiddheshvar Fr. Mg. Vad. 14; 3 tl; mq; gym; lib.
Jath Road; 16·0	Jath; 7·0; Tue.	Walsang; 0·2	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (gr); 4 tl; mq; dg; ch.
Sangli; 5·0	Sangli; 5·0; Sat.	.. 2·0	W;rv.	3 Sl (2 pr, m); Cs (c); Badepir Urus Phg. Vad. 13; 4 tl; 3 mq; dg; dh; 2 gym; ch; 2 lib; 3 dp.
Dudhagaon; 6·0	Sangli; 10·0; Sat.	Kavalapur; 4·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl; mq; dg; gym.
Jath Road; 26·0	Yelavi; 6·0; Sat.	Kolagiri; 3·4	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Mhasoba Fr. Ct. Sud. 1; 2 tl; mq.
Local; ..	Local; .. Sat.	.. ..	..	..
Local; ..	Local; .. Sat.	Local; ..	W;w; pl.	21 Sl (15 pr, 3 m, 3 h); 3 Cs (3 mis); Ganesh Fr. Bdp. Sud. 4 to 8; 12 tl; 4 mq; dg; 7 gym; ch; 5 lib; 30 dp; Cch.
Local; 1·0	Local; 0·3; Sat.	Local; ..	rv;pl.	2 Sl (pr); 3 Cs (3 mis); 4 tl; mq; gym; ch.
Karad; 28·0	Vite; 6·0; Mon.	.. ..	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); Pir Urus Ct. Sud. 3; 3 tl; lib.
Bijapur; 22·0	Local; .. Mon.	Stage; ..	W;n.	2 Sl (pr); pyt; Cs (mp); Maragai Fr. Asd. Vad. 5; 5 tl; m; mq; 2 gym; ch; lib; 4 dp (1 vet).

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office; Distance. (4)
Sarāṭī—Mrj.—सराटी ..	NE; 24·0	2·0; 297; 42; 154	Salgare; 2·4
Sāsapaḍe—Kpr.—सासपडे ..	W; 15·4	0·9; 645; 119; 297	Kadegaon; 3·0
Sāvaḷaj—Tsv.—सावळज ..	NE; 13·0	25·2; 7212; 1249; 3493	Local; ..
Sāvaḷavāḍī—Mrj.—सावळवाडी ..	W; 23·0	2·7; 1912; 333; 567	Dudhgaon; 1·0
Sāvalī—Mrj.—सावली ..	N; 3·0	2·3; 1037; 178; 464	Miraj; 2·4
Sāvarḍe—Tsv.—सावर्डे ..	E; 7·0	7·5; 2664; 466; 1334	Local; ..
Śeḍyāḷ—Jth.—शेड्याळ ..	E; 7·0	7·9; 789; 156; 316	Jath; 9·0
Śegāṅv—Jth.—शेगांव ..	N; 8·0	18·0; 3509; 625; 1292	.. ..
Śeḷakabhāv—Kpr.—शेळकभाव ..	SW; 7·0	2·8; 949; 157; 440	Vadiyerāibag; 2·0
Śeṇe—Wla.—शेणे ..	NW; 8·0	1·3; 708; 126; 233	Kasegaon; 1·0
Śerevāḍī—Kpr.—शेरेवाडी ..	NE; 47·0	1·0; 144; 22; 63	Atapadi; 4·0
Śeṭaphaḷe—Kpr.—शेटफळे ..	E; 34·6	14·9; 3780; 611; 970	Karagani; 3·0
Siddhanāth—Jth.—सिद्धनाथ ..	SE; 17·0	6·1; 887; 165; 446	Muchandi; 6·0
Siddheśvar—Srl.—सिद्धेश्वर ..	NW; 45·0	7·4; 198; 42; 81	Arale; 22·0
Śigāṅv—Wla.—शिगाव ..	SE; 18·0	1·3; 3558; 639; 1174	Local; ..
Sindūr—Jth.—सिंदूर ..	S; 10·0	8·4; 1808; 345; 850	Billur; 15·0

Railway Station ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day.		Motor Stand ; Distance.		Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)		(6)		(7)		(8)	(9)
Salgare;	2·0	Salgare;	2·0; Mon.	Kavathe Mahankal;	8·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl; dg; gym.
Karad;	16·0	Kadegaon;	3·0; Fri.	Stage;	0·4	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 3 tl; dg; gym; lib.
Kavathe Mahankal;	15·0	Local;	.. Sat.	Local;	..	W;rv; str.	7 Sl (5 pr, m, h); 3 Cs (mp, 2 mis); Shravani Fr. last Sat. of Srn; 11 tl; 2 m; mq; dh; 2 gym; ch; 2 lib; 3 dp.
Sangli;	10·0	Sangli;	10·0; Sat.	..	1·0	w;rv.	2 Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl; ch; lib.
Miraj;	3·0	Miraj;	2·4; Tue.	Miraj;	2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Pir Urus Mrg; tl; dg; gym; ch.
Bhilvadi;	13·0	Tasgaon;	6·0; Tue.	Stage;	..	W;w.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); 2 Cs (2 c); Yallama Devi Fr. Ps. Vad. 1; Bhavani Fr. An. Sud. 11; 7 tl; m; mq; dg; dh; gym; ch; 2 lib.
Jath Road;	15·0	Jath;	9·0; Tue.	Walsang;	1·4	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (gr); 6 tl; mq; lib.
..	..	..	.. ..	Stage;	0·1	W;w.	2 Sl (pr); Cs (fmg); Gudhipadva Fr. Ct. Sud. Pratipada; 11 tl; mq; dh; gym; ch; 2 dp.
Karad;	21·0	Vite;	7·0; Mon.	..	3·1	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; Maruti Fr. Ct. Vad. 30; 4 tl; mq; lib.
Karad;	15·0	Kasegaon;	1·0; Wed.	Stage;	..	w;n.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Jyotirling Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; tl; gym; ch.
Sangola;	13·0	Atapadi;	4·0; Sat.	..	3·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 4 tl.
Warud;	13·0	Karagani;	3·0; Thu.	Karagani;	3·4	W;n.	2 Sl (pr); Cs (mp); Nath Fr. Ct. Vad. 8; 18 tl, mq; gym; ch; lib.
Bijapur;	27·0	Sankh;	9·0; Mon.	..	4·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Siddheshvar Fr. Srn; 2 tl; mq; ch.
Karad;	40·0	Pet-Lond;	3·0; Fri.	Arale;	23·0	str.	Sl (pr); tl.
Sangli;	18·0	Local;	.. Sun.	Local;	..	W;w; rv.	2 Sl (pr); 2 Cs; Maruti Fr. Ct. Vad. 3; 5 tl; mq; dh; gym; ch; lib; dp.
Jath Road;	30·0	Billur;	15·0; Fri.	Billur;	6·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 6 tl; m; mq; dh.

Village Name. (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office ; Distance. (4)
Singanahaḷaḷi—Jth.—सिंगनहळ्ळी	NW; 16·0	5·6; 1186; 210; 564	.. ..
Singaṇāpūr—Jth.—सिंगणापूर ..	SW; 17·0	3·5; 859; 152; 482	Dafalapur; 6·0
Śipūr—Mrj.—शिपूर ..	SE; 12·0	6·8, 2287; 409; 1069	Salgare; 6·0
Śiraḍhoṇ—Mrj.—शिरढोण ..	NE; 18·0	3·1; 1471; 284; 664	Local; ..
Śiragāṅv—Kpr.—शिरगांव ..	SW; 20·0	1·7; 584; 114; 298	Devrashtre; 1·4
Śiragānv—Wla.—शिरगांव ..	E; 7·0	4·4; 1134; 164; 306	Walwa; 1·0
Śiragāṅv Kavaṭhe—Tsv.—शिरगाव कवठे	S; 5·2	2·0; 914; 157; 328	Nandre; 2·0
Śiragānv Visāpūr—Tsv.—शिरगांव विसापूर	N; 5·3	2·6; 1370; 239; 642	Visapur; 1·0
Śirāḷā—Srl.—शिराळा .	.. ..	3·8, 6411; 1258; 1253	Local; ..
Śirāḷā Kh.—Srl.—शिराळा खु. .	W; 9·0	1·1; 745; 136; 246	Shirala; 7·0
Śirasagānv—Kpr.—शिरसगाव .	W; 25·0	2·6; 1084; 203; 472	Devrashtre; 5·0
Śirasī—Srl.—शिरसी .	N; 9·0	4·7; 1617; 335; 778	Shirala; 9·0
Śiraṭe—Wla.—शिरटे .	N, 6·0	2·4; 1517; 269; 610	Local; ..
Śivaṇī—Kpr.—शिवणी .	W; 9·0	4·4; 1511; 261; 446	Vadiye raibag; 2·0
Sonakire—Kpr.—सोनकिरे .	SW, 22·0	4·5, 1340; 262; 667	Chinchani-wangi; 2·0

Railway Station ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day.		Motor Stand ; Distance.		Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)		(6)		(7)		(8)	(9)
..	..	..	.. ..	Walekhindi;	3·0	w;n.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Pir Urus Ct. Vad. 9 to 11; tl; mq; ch.
Salgare;	7·0	Anantpur;	4·0 ..	Kokale;	4·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); Hanuman Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; tl; mq.
Arag;	3·0	Salgare;	6·0; Mon.	Arag;	3·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Yallama Devi Fr. Ps. Sud. 15, Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 6 tl; dg; gym.
Kavathe Mahankal;	12·0	Local;	.. Thu.	Stage;	..	rv; str.	2 Sl (pr, h); Cs (c)· Siddheshvar Fr. Ct. Sud. 15, 3 tl; mq; dg; gym.
Takari;	4 0	Takari;	4·0; Mon.	..	..	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 5 tl; mq; dg; gym.
Takari;	19 0	Walwa;	1·0; Fri.	Walwa;	0·5	W;rv.	Sl (pr), Cs (c); Mahashivratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 30; 7 tl; m; gym; ch; lib.
Nandre;	1·0	Sangli;	9·0; Sat.	Nandre;	3·0	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; Hanuman; Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 2 tl; gym; lib.
Bhilvadi;	..	Visapur;	1·0; Fri.	Local;	..	W,w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Hajarat Pir Urus Ps. Vad. 5; 5 tl; mq; dg; gym; ch; 2 lib.
Takari;	20 0	Local;	.. Mon.	Local;	..	W;n.	6 Sl (4 pr, 2 h); 7 Cs (c); Gorakhanath Fr. Ct. Vad. 11; 10 tl; m; 6 mq; dg; dh; 3 gym; ch; lib; 10 dp.
Takari;	28·0	Shirala;	7·0; Mon.	..	2·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 3 tl; gym.
Shenoli;	3·0	Shenoli;	3·0; Sat.	Sonakire;	2·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs (mp, mis); Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 4 tl; mq; gym; lib.
Takari;	30·0	Local;	.. Fri.	Local;	..	W;w.	2 Sl (pr); Cs (c); 6 tl; 2 gym; lib; dp.
Bhavani Nagar;	3·0	Narasingapur;	2·0; Tue.	Bahe;	2·0	W;rv.	2 Sl (pr); Cs (c); 5 tl; dg; 2 gym; ch; lib.
Karad;	10·0	Kadegaon;	4·0; Fri.	..	1·4	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; 5 tl; ch; lib.
Bhavani Nagar;	3·0	Bhavani Nagar;	3·0; Fri.	Local;	..	w;n.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Nath Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 6 tl; mq; gym; ch; lib.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office; Distance. (4)
Sonalagī—Jth.—सोनलगी ..	NE; 36·0	5·1; 793; 133; 258	Chadchan; 5·0
Sonasaḷ—Kpr.—सोनसळ ..	W; 25·0	3·0; 914; 171; 516	Devrashtre; 10·0
Sonavaḍe—Srl.—सोनवडे ..	NW; 23·0	2·6; 1068; 205; 566	Arale; 1·0
Sonī—Mrj.—सोनी ..	N; 12·0	7·4; 3576; 648; 1213	Local; ..
Sonyāḷ—Jth.—सोन्याळ ..	NE; 20·0	18·1; 2365; 397; 1030	.. ..
Sorḍī—Jth.—सोर्डी ..	E; 18·0	6·9; 1425; 261; 475	Jath; 14·0
Sulatānagāde—Kpr.—सुलतानगादे	E, 16·0	0·5; 676; 114; 311	Khanapur, 2·0
Surul—Wla.—सुरुल ..	W; 7·0	4·5; 1581; 278; 394	Local; ..
Susalād—Jth.—सुसलाद ..	NE; 36·0	6·0; 1321; 236; 611	.. ..
Taḍasar—Kpr.—तडसर	W; 10·4	9·8; 3088; 602; 801	Local; ..
Taḍavaḷe—Kpr.—तडवळे ..	NE; 31·5	4·9; 1055; 200; 477	Karagani; 3·0
Taḍavale—Srl.—तडवले ..	W; 4·0	4·0; 1476; 233; 776	Shirala; 3·0
Ṭākaḷe—Srl.—टाकळे .	NW; 40·0	3·5; 251; 53; 163	Arale; 10·0
Ṭākaḷī—Mrj.—टाकळी ..	E; 2·6	2·7; 1320; 194; 511	Miraj; 3·0
Tākārī—Wla.—ताकारी ..	NE; 9·0	1·7; 2119; 412; 592	Local; ..
Ṭākave—Srl.—टाकवे ..	N; 9·0	3·4; 1053; 193; 433	Shirala; 10·0

Railway Station ; Distance. (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day. (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance. (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
Indi Road; 20·0	Chadchan; 5·0; Wed.	Stage; 3·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Sidrameshvar Fr. Ps; 2 tl; mq; ch.
Shenoli; 3·0	Shenoli; 3·0; Sat.	Sonakire; 2·0	w;n.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); Gudhi Padava Ct. Sud. 1; 3 tl; gym; lib.
Takari; 47·0	Arale; 1·4; Sat.	Arale; 1·4	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Vitthal Fr. Mg. Vad. 15; 5 tl; gym.
Miraj; 10·0	Local; .. Mon.	.. 2·4	w;n; str.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); Cs (c); 6 tl; 2 mq; dg; 5 gym; 2 lib; 2 dp; Cch.
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. 0·5	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; Gudhi Padava Ct. Sud. 1; 4 tl; m; mq; dh; ch; lib.
Jath Road; 29·0	Madgyal; 5·0; Fri.	Local; ..	W;w.	2 Sl (pr); Cs (mp); Datta Jayanti Fr. Mrg. Sud. 15; 4 tl; m; mq.
Karad; 42·0	Khanapur; 2·0; Fri.	Stage; ..	W;w; rv.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; dh; ch; lib.
Takari; 18·0	Peth; 2·0; Wed.	.. 4·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Manakeshvar Fr. Mg. Vad. 12, 13; 4 tl; mq; gym; 2 lib.
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. 3·0	w;rv	2 Sl (pr); Cs (mp); 4 tl; m; mq; ch; lib.
Karad; 16·0	Local; .. Wed.	Stage; ..	W;w.	3 Sl (2 m, h); Cs (c); Jyotirling Fr. Ct. Vad. 7, Shivjayanti Vsk. Sud. 2; 10 tl; mq; dg; 2 gym; lib; dp.
Sangola; 18·0	Karaguni; 3·0; Thu.	Stage; ..	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); pyt; Cs (mp); 4 tl.
Takari; 24·0	Shirala; 3·0; Mon.	Shirala; 4·0	W;w; rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl; gym.
Karad; 40·0	Pet-Lond; 6·0; Fri.	Arale; 15·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Bolvad; 0·4	Miraj; 3·0; Tue.	.. 2·6	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; Laxmi Fr. third Mon. of Srn; 3 tl; ch; lib.
Local; ..	Local; .. Mon.	Local; ..	w;rv.	4 Sl (3 pr, h); Cs (c); Kamal Bhairav Fr. Mg. Sud. 15; 5 tl; mq; dh; gym; lib; 2 dp.
Karad; 23·0	Shirala; 10·0; Mon.	Local; ..	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Bhairavnath Fr. Mrg. Sud. 15; 3 tl; gym; lib.

Village Name. (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office ; Distance. (4)
Tāmbave—Wla.—तांबवे ..	NW; 12·0	5·6; 3464; 645; 1514	Local; ..
Tānaṅg—Mrj.—तानंग ..	N; 4·6	3·4; 1753; 283; 746	Miraj; 3·0
Tāndūḷavāḍī—Kpr.- तांदूळवाडी ..	SW; 9·4	1·2; 511; 77; 294	Kundal; 5·0
Tānduḷavāḍī—Wla.—तांदुळवाडी ..	SE; 11·0	2·2; 1717; 316; 717	Local; ..
Tāsagāṅv (Urban Area I)—Tsv. तासगांव (नागरी विभाग १)	HQ; ..	16·8; 16649; 3313; 3611	Local; ..
Thānāpūḍe—Wla.—थानापूडे ..	SW; 14·0	1·6; 1011; 164; 320	Chikurde; 2·0
Tikuṇḍī—Jth.- तिकुंडी ..	E; 36·0	12·4; 1424; 246; 656	Tikota; 12·0
Tilyāḷ—Jth.—तिल्याळ .	E; 18·0	2·2; 318; 54; 171	Jath; 17·0
Tipehaḷḷi—Jth.—तिपेहळ्ळी ..	NW; 3·0	3·4; 516; 90; 252	Umadi; 9·0
Tisaṅgī—Mrj.—तिसंगी ..	NE; 35·0	6·5; 1325; 216; 561	Khanapur; 12·0
Toṇḍoḷī—Kpr.—तोंडोली ..	W; 17·0	7·0; 2112; 380; 1059	Kadegaon; 5·0
Tujārapūr—Wla.—तुजारपूर ..	SE; 5·0	2·0; 1004; 176; 496	Uran Islampur; 3·0
Tuṅg—Mrj—तुंग .	NW; 15·0	2·8; 2119; 345; 645	Ashta 5·0

Railway Station ; Distance. (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day. (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance. (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
Shenoli; 7·0	Kasegaon; 3·0; Wed.	Local; ..	W;rv.	4 Sl (pr); Cs (c); Ganesh Utsav Bdp. Sud. 14, Bahiroba Fr. Asd. Vad 9; 7 tl; m; mq; dh; 2 gym; lib.
Miraj; 4·0	Miraj; 3·0; Tue.	.. 1·4	W;w; n.	2 Sl (pr); Cs (c); Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 3 tl; mq; dg; ch.
Kirloskarvadi; 8·0	Kundal; 5·0; Sun.	Balvadi Bhalavani, 0·4	W;rv.	Sl (pr); tl; gym; lib.
Takari; 19·0	Local; .. Tue.	.. 0·1	W,w.	3 Sl (pr, 2 m); Cs (mp); Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 3 tl; mq; ch; 2 lib; dp.
Bhilvadi; 7·0	Local; .. Mon.	Local; ..	W;n.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); mun; 7 Cs (c); Pir Urus Vsk. Sud. 10, Ganesh Fr. Bdp. Sud. 4, Siddheshvar Fr. Ct. Vad. 8; 14 tl; 2 m; 2 mq; 3 dg; 2 dh; 5 gym; ch; lib; 10 dp.
Takari; 25·0	Chikurde; 2·0; Fri.	.. 1·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 3 tl; mq; dg; gym.
Minchnal; 15·0	Sankh; 6·0; Mon.	Local; ..	W;w.	2 Sl (pr); Cs; Virbhadradev Fr. Ct. Vad. 30; 6 tl; m; mq; dg.
Bijapur; 23·0	Asangijath; 1·0; Wed.	Asangijath; 1·4	W;w.	Sl (pr); Hanuman Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 2 tl; mq.
.. ..	Umadi; 9·0; Sun.	.. 1·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Hanuman Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 3 tl; ch; lib.
Dhalgaon; 8·0	Dhalgaon; 8·0; Sun.	Local; ..	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 3 tl; gym; ch; lib.
Karad; 17·0	Kadegaon; 5·0, Fri.	.. 2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Ambikadevi Fr. Vsk. Sud. 15; 14 tl; mq; 2 dg; gym; lib.
Takari; 12·0	Uran Islampur; 3·0; Thu; Sun.	.. 0·5	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Bhairoba Fr. Ct. Sud. 12; 3 tl; lib.
Bhilvadi; 4·0	Sangli; .. Sat.	Stage; ..	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 9, Pir Urus Ct. Sud. 8; 2 tl; mq; dg; gym; lib; dp.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)		Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office; Distance. (4)	
Tupāri—Tsv.—तुपारी ..	NW;	23·0	1·2; 1245; 209; 301	Takari;	1·4
Turci—Tsv.—तुर्ची ..	NW;	5·0	4·9; 2338; 421; 1214	Tasgaon;	5·0
Umadī—Jth.—उमदी ..	NE;	32·0	28·6; 4746; 889; 2123	Local;	..
Umarāṇī—Jth.—उमराणी ..	S;	11·0	29·7; 4177; 791; 1152	..	..
Umbaragāṅv—Kpr.—उंबरगांव ..	NE;	50·0	4·0; 695; 118; 282	Dighanchi;	3·0
Upaḷāvī—Tsv.—उपळावी ..	SE;	11·2	3·6; 1798; 319; 915	Kumthe;	2·0
Upāḷe Māyaṇī—Kpr.—उपाळे मायणी.	N;	18·0	0·3; 1537; 278; 594	Kadegaon;	8·0
Upāḷe Vāṅgī—Kpr.—उपाळे वांगी	N;	19·0	3·9; 743; 132; 377	Kadegaon;	6·0
Upavaḷe—Srl.—उपवळे .	W.	3·0	1·5; 589; 78; 315	Shirala;	2·0
Uran—Wla.—उरण ..	E;		Included in Urban Area I.	..	..
Uraṇ Islāmapūr (Urban Area I) —Wla.—उरण इस्लामपूर (नागरी विभाग १)	HQ;	..	12·9; 20817; 3934; 3483	Local;	..
Uṭagī—Jth.—उटगी ..	NE;	23·0	24·7; 2889; 461; 869	Local;	..
Vaḍagāṅv—Kpr.—वडगाव ..	SW;	15·0	4·0; 1572; 289; 750	Devrashtre;	2·0
Vaḍagāṅv—Tsv.—वडगांव ..	E;	18·0	6·7; 1992; 347; 929	Local;	..
Vaḍakhaḷ—Kpr.—वडखळ ..	NE;	10·0	2·0; 563; 100; 292	Vejegaon;	2·0
Vaḍḍī—Mrj.—वड्डी ..	S,	2·4	5·0; 1218; 194; 559	Miraj;	2·0

Railway Station ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day.		Motor Stand ; Distance.		Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)		(6)		(7)		(8)	(9)
Takari;	1·4	Takari;	1·4; Mon.	Takari;	1·0	rv.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs; tl; gym; ch; lib.
Bhilvadi;	6·0	Tasgaon;	5·0; Thu.	..	1·6	W;rv.	2 Sl (pr); Cs (mp); Siddheshvar Fr. Ct. Vad. 8; 5 tl; mq; ch; 2 lib.
Indi Road;	28·0	Local;	.. Sun.	Local;	..	W;w;n.	6 Sl (3 pr, 2 m, h); Cs (mp); Malkarsiddh Fr. Ct. Sud. 5; 3 tl; m; 3 mq; 3 dg; 2 gym; ch; lib; 6 dp.
..	..	..	.. ..	Jath;	11·0	W;w;n.	4 Sl (pr); Cs; Yallama Devi Fr. Mrg. Sud. 15; 4 tl; m; mq; dg; dh; ch; lib; 2 dp.
Sangola;	20·0	Dighanchi;	3·0; Sun.	..	0·1	W;w.	2 Sl (pr); 2 tl; ch; lib.
Madhavnagar;	9·0	Sangli;	12·0; Sat.	..	0·1	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Siddheshvar Ct. Vad. 8; 2 tl; mq; dh; gym; ch; lib.
Karad;	16·0	Hingangaon;	1·0; Mon.	Stage;	..	W;w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 5 tl; gym; ch; lib.
Karad;	16·0	Hingangaon;	0·2; Mon.	Hingangaon Bk.;	0·5	W;w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c-gr); Pir Urus Ct. Sud. 5; 3 tl; dg; gym.
Takari;	23·0	Shirala;	2·0; Mon.	Shirala;	3·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 3 tl.
..	..	—	.. ..	..	..	.	..
Takari;	9·0	Local;	.. Sun. Thu.	Local;	..	rv;pl.	10 Sl (6 pr, 4 h); 15 Cs (15 mis); Sambhu Appa Fr. Kt. Sud. 15; 12 tl; m; 5 mq; dg; 10 gym; ch; 2 lib; 24 dp; Cch.
Jath Road;	24·0	Billur;	6·0; Fri.	Stage;	..	W;n.	3 Sl (pr); Cs; Ambavva devi Fr. Vsk; 11 tl; 2 m; mq; dg.
Takari;	4·0	Devrashtre;	2·0; Wed.	Devrashtre;	2·0	w;n.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Bhairavnath Fr. Ct. Vad; 8; 8 tl; m; mq; 2 gym; 2 lib; dp.
Dhalgaon;	6·0	Dhalgaon;	6·0; Sun.	Local;	..	W;w.	2 Sl (pr); Cs (mp); Bramhanath Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 5 tl; 2 gym; 2 lib.
Kirloskarvadi;	25·0	Mayani;	3·0; Sun.	..	3·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl; gym.
Miraj;	2·0	Miraj;	2·0; Tue.	Stage;	..	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl; mq; gym.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office; Distance. (4)
Vāḍī Bhāgāī—Srl.—वाडी भागाई ..	SW; 6·0	2·6; 614; 122; 324	Shirala; 6·0
Vaḍiyerāyabāg—Kpr.—वडिये-रायबाग.	W; 7·0	7·3; 2033; 364; 900	Local; ..
Vāghāpūr—Tsv.—वाघापूर ..	NE; 8·2	1·5; 626; 110; 298	Savalaj; 5·0
Vāgholī—Mrj.—वाघोली ..	NE; 33·0	1·2; 545; 85; 261	Khanapur; 9·0
Vājhar—Kpr.—वाझर ..	S; 9·0	2·0; 800; 140; 387	Borgaon; 2·0
Vajracaunde—Tsv.—वज्रचौंदे .	E; 14·0	1·3; 524; 96; 268	Kavathe Mahankal; 10·0
Vajravāḍ—Jth.—वज्रवाड ..	SE; 12·0	4·1; 965; 165; 401	Billur; 5·0
Vākurḍe Bk.—Srl.—वाकुर्डे बु. ..	NW; 8·0	4·9; 1948; 342; 805	Shirala; 9·0
Vākurḍe Kh.—Srl.—वाकुर्डे खु. ..	NW; 7·0	2·6; 1388; 276; 648	Shirala; 8·0
Vaḷasang—Jth.—वळसंग ..	E; 6·0	12·1; 1518, 294; 802	Jath; 7·0
Vāḷavā—Wla.—वाळवा ..	E; 6·4	16·4; 8885; 1256; 3286	Local; ..
Valavaṇ—Kpr.—वलवण ..	NE; 17·0	5·4; 1197; 226; 390	Local; ..
Vāḷekhinḍī—Jth.—वाळेखिंडी ..	NW; 14·0	17·5; 2902; 504; 1006	.. ..
Vāḷūj—Kpr.—वाळूज ..	NE; 8·0	3·3; 1058; 176; 551	Vejegaon; 2·0
Vāṅgī—Kpr.—वांगी ..	SW; 17·0	13·9; 3927; 686; 1677	Local; ..

Railway Station ; Distance. (5)		Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day. (6)		Motor Stand ; Distance. (7)		Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
Takari;	27·0	Shirala;	6·0; Mon.	..	1·5	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl.
Karad;	20·0	Vite;	7·0; Mon.	Stage;	1·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Nath Fr. Kt. Sud. 15; 9 tl; mq; gym; lib.
Bhilvadi;	17·0	Savalaj;	5·0; Sat.	Stage;	..	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Laxmi Fr. Vsk. Sud. 4; 2 tl; lib.
Dhalgaon;	9·0	Dhalgaon;	6·0; Sun.	Khanapur;	9·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl; ch.
Kirloskarvadi;	6·0	Palus;	5·0; Tue.	Alsund;	2·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); tl; gym; ch; lib.
Kavathe Mahankal;	15·0	Shirdhon;	4·0; Thu.	Gavan;	2·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Yallamadevi Fr. Ps. Sud. 7; 2 tl; dh; gym; lib.
Dhulgaon;	16·0	Billur;	5·0; Fri.	Billur;	4·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Khuda Dev Urus Kt. Sud. 1; 4 tl; 2 mq; dg; ch.
Takari;	29·0	Shirasi;	3·0; Fri.	Shirasi;	3·0	W;w.	8 Sl (7 pr, m); Cs (c); 8 tl.
Takari;	28·0	Shirasi;	5·0; Fri.	Shirasi;	4·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr); Cs (c); 7 tl; gym; lib.
Jath Road;	18·0	Jath;	7·0; Tue.	Local;	..	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Gudhipadava Fr. Ct. Sud. 1, Dipavali Fr. Kt. Sud. 1; 13 tl; mq; dg; ch; lib.
Takari;	17·0	Local;	.. Fri.	Local;	..	W;rv.	8 Sl (7 pr, h); 9 Cs (mis); Shivajayanti Fr. Vsk. Vad. 3, Vetaldev Fr. Ct. Sud. 1; 4 tl; m; 2 mq; dg; dh; 3 gym; ch; 2 lib; 4 dp.
Varud;	26·0	Kharsundi;	5·0; Sun.	..	5·0	W;n.	2 Sl (pr); Cs (c); Nath Fr. Ct. Vad. 10; 4 tl; 2 lib.
..	..	..	.. ..	Jath Road;	0·2	n;str.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Siddheshvar Fr. Ct. Vad. 8; 6 tl; mq; ch.
Karad;	33·0	Lengare;	2·0; Sat.	Lengare;	2·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Pir Urus Ct. Sud. 5; 2 tl; gym; lib.
Takari;	8·0	Local;	.. Thu.	Stage;	0·1	W;w.	2 Sl (pr); 2 Cs (c); Bhavani Fr. Kt. Sud. 15; 11 tl; m; mq; dg; dh; 3 gym; ch; 2 lib.

Village Name. (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office ; Distance. (4)
Vasagade—Tsv.—वसगडे ..	SW; 7·0	7·8; 3861; 710; 1304	Local; ..
Vāsambe—Tsv.—वासंबे ..	SE; 1·2	3·0; 1187; 195; 606	Tasgaon; 2·0
Vāṣāṇ—Jth.—वाषाण ..	W; 5·0	3·0; 460; 72; 298	Jath; 5·0
Vaśī—Wla.—वशी ..	S; 8·0	3·4; 1810; 319; 777	Local; ..
Vāsumbe—Kpr.—वासुंबे ..	NE; 5·0	3·7; 924; 177; 327	Vite; 6·0
Vāṭegānv—Wla.—वाटेगांव ..	NW; 10·0	7·0; 4255; 764; 1299	Local; ..
Vāyaphaḷ—Jth.—वायफळ ..	N; 8·0	6·6; 1156; 216; 521	.. ..
Vāyaphaḷe—Tsv.—वायफळे ..	NE; 15·0	10·6; 3513; 662; 1362	Local; ..
Vejegānv—Kpr.—वेजेगांव ..	NE; 9·0	6·7; 1718; 310; 733	Local; ..
Veṭī—Srl.—वेती ..	NW; 42·0	3·4; 115; 32; 40	Arale; 36·0
Vhasapeṭh—Jth.—व्हसपेठ ..	NE; 13·6	16·5; 1130; 187; 598	Jath; 15·0
Vibhūtavāḍī—Kpr.—विभूतवाडी ..	NE; 26·0	7·1; 1025; 192; 522	Kharsundi; 7·0
Vihāpūr—Kpr.—विहापूर ..	W; 20·0	5·0; 1954; 331; 945	Kadegaon; 5·0
Visāpūr—Tsv.—विसापूर ..	N; 6·5	17·3; 5422; 945; 2476	Local; ..

Railway Station ; Distance. (5)		Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day. (6)		Motor Stand ; Distance. (7)		Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
Nandre;	0·6	Tasgaon;	6·0; Mon.	Local;	..	W;rv.	3 Sl (pr); pyt; 3 Cs; 9 tl; 2 mq; dg; ch; 3 lib; dp.
Bhilvadi;	8·0	Tasgaon;	2·0; Mon.	..	1·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs (c); Shri Bramhanath Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 2 tl; gym.
Kavathe Mahankal;	10·0	Jath;	5·0; Tue.	..	1·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; mq.
Takari;	16·0	Yelur;	2·4; Sat.	Ladegaon;	1·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs; Parshvanath Fr. Ps. Vad. 15, Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 5 tl; mq; gym; lib.
Kirloskarvadi;	24·0	Vite;	6·0; Mon.	Bhambarde;	2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs (mp); Nath Fr. Ct. Vad. 8; 3 tl; mq; gym; lib.
Karad;	17·0	Local;	.. Sat.	Local;	..	W;w; n.	3 Sl (2 pr, h); 2 Cs (c); Watcshvar Fr. Kt. Sud. 15, Vasudev Fr. Srn. Vad. 8; 16 tl; m; mq; 2 gym; lib; 2 dp.
..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; Shri Siddheshvar Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 5 tl.
Dhulgaon;	19·0	Local;	.. Fri.	Local;	..	W;w.	3 Sl (2 pr, h); Cs. (c); 7 tl; mq; dh; gym; ch; 2 lib.
Karad;	32·0	Kaledhon;	4·0; Tue.	Mahuli;	5·0	W;n.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (c); Pir Urus Ct. Sud. 7; 6 tl; dg; gym; ch; 3 lib.
Karad;	22·0	Pet-Lond;	3·0; Fri.	Arale;	18·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Bijapur;	28·0	Asangijath;	3·0; Wed.	Stage	0·½	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl; mq; dg.
Koregaon;	40·0	Zare;	2·0; Mon.	Zare;	2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Maruti Fr. An. Sud. 4; 2 tl; lib.
Karad;	8·0	Kadegaon;	5·0; Fri.	..	4·0	W;n.	2 Sl (pr); Cs (c); Vitthal Bhandara Fr. Mg. Vad. 8; 2 tl; dh.
Bhilvadi;	14·0	Local;	.. Fri.	Stage;	..	W;n.	4 Sl (2 pr, m, h); 4 Cs; Hanuman Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 18 tl; mq; 3 gym; ch; 5 lib.

Village Name. (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office ; Distance. (4)
Viṭe (Urban Area 1)—Kpr.—विटे (नागरी विभाग १). ..	HQ; ..	21·3; 13391; 2653; 2264	Local; ..
Viṭṭhalapūr—Kpr.—विठ्ठलापूर ..	NE; 45·0	4·9; 1222; 222; 419	Dighanchi; 3·0
Yeḍe—Kpr.—येडे ..	N; 19·0	2·7; 754; 153; 418	Kadegaon; 7·0
Yeḍe Macindra—Wla.—येडे मच्छिंद्र	N; 7·0	2·6, 2874; 488; 1109	Local; ..
Yeḍe Nipāṇī—Wla.—येडे निपाणी ..	S; 8·0	6·4; 3571; 667; 1182	Local; ..
Yeḷadarī—Jth.—येळदरी ..	S; 5·0	5·9; 722; 132; 256	.. ..
Yeḷāpūr—Srl.—येळापूर ..	NW; 11·0	5·0; 1968; 356; 1033	Charan; 4·0
Yeḷavī—Jth.—येळवी .	NF; 14·0	8 6, 1510; 265; 584	Jath; 24·0
Yeḷāvī—Tsv.—येळावी ..	W; 7 5	11·1; 57[illegible]5; 997; 1976	Local; ..
Yeḷūr—Wla.—येलूर ..	S; 9·0	5·2; 3951; 705; 1209	Local; ..
Yetagāṅv—Kpr.—येतगांव ..	NW; 8·0	7·9; 2305; 423; 961	Local; ..

Railway Station ; Distance. (5)		Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day. (6)		Motor Stand ; Distance. (7)		Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
Karad;	23·0	Local;	.. Mon.	Local;	..	W; pl.	11 Sl (8 pr, m, 2h); 4 Cs (4 mis); Nath Fr. Ct. Vad. 8; 12 tl; m; mq; dh; 5 gym; ch; 2 lib; 12 dp (1 vet).
Sangola;	14·0	Dighanchi;	3·0; Sun.	Stage;	..	W;w.	2 Sl (pr); Cs (c); 3 tl; ch; lib.
Karad;	20·0	Hingangaon;	1·0; Mon.	Stage;	0·1	W;w; n.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Jyotirlingdev Fr. Phg. Vad. 5; 3 tl; ch.
Bhavani-Nagar;	2·0	Bhavani-Nagar;	2·0; Fri.	..	1·2	W;w.	2 Sl (pr); 2 Cs (c, mp); Jyotiba Fr. Ct. Vad. Last Mon.; 7 tl; mq; 2 gym; ch; lib.
Takari;	16·0	Yelur;	2·0; Sat.	..	1·0	W;w.	3 Sl (2 pr, h); 2 Cs (2 mis); Mallikarjun Fr. last Mon. of Srn; 12 tl; m; mq; gym; ch; lib; Cch.
..	..	..	.. ..	..	0·1	W;n.	Sl (pr); Siddheshvar Fr. Srn; 3 tl; mq; gym; ch.
Karad;	25·0	Charan;	4·0; Thu.	Shedge-vadi;	2·0	W;w.	3 Sl (pr); Cs (c); Ninai Devi Fr. Ps. Sud. 14; 3 tl; dg; 2 gym; lib.
Javale Road;	12·0	Local;	.. Sat.	Stage;	..	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 6 tl; dh.
Bhilvadi;	2·0	Palus;	4·0; Tue.	Stage;	..	W;w.	5 Sl (4 pr, h); 5 Cs (5 mis); Siddheshvar Fr. Ct. Vad. 8; 8 tl; m; mq; 4 gym; ch; 2 lib; dp.
Takari;	19·0	Local;	.. Sat.	..	1·0	W;w.	3 Sl (2 pr, h); pyt; 6 Cs (c, mp, 4 mis); Bhiroba Dev Fr. Ct. Vad. 7; 3 tl; mq; dh; 2 gym; lib; 3 dp; Cch.
Karad;	20·0	Vite;	9·0; Mon.	Stage;	1·0	W;w; n.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Khandoba Fr. Mg., Nathdev Fr. Ct. Vad. 11; 9 tl; mq; gym; ch; 2 lib.

LIST OF DESERTED VILLAGES IN SANGLI DISTRICT

Name of village—Tahsil	Name of village—Tahsil
1. Moḷā Kumbhoj—Mrj.—मोळा कुंभोज	3. Śerī Kavaṭhe—Mrj.—शेरी कवठे
2. Śere Dudhoṇḍī—Tsv.—शेरे दुधोंडी	4. Śivaṇī—Srl.—शिवणी

APPENDIX

CONVERSION FACTORS

LENGTH :

1 inch = 2·54 centimetres
1 foot = 30·48 centimetres
1 yard = 91·44 centimetres
1 mile = 1·61 kilometres
1 nautical mile (U. K.) = 1,853·18 metres
1 nautical mile (international) = 1,852 metres

AREA :

1 square foot = 0·093 square metre
1 square yard = 0·836 square metre
1 acre = 0·405 hectare

VOLUME :

1 cubic foot = 0·023 cubic metre

CAPACITY :

1 gallon (Imperial) = 4·55 litres
1 seer (80 tolas) = 0·937 litre
1 Madras measure = 1·77 litres

WIGHT :

1 tola = 11·66 grams
1 Chhatak = 58·32 grams
1 seer = 933·10 grams
1 maund = 37·32 kilograms
1 palam = 34·99 grams
1 seer (24 tolas) = 279·93 grams
1 viss = 1·40 kilograms
1 maund (Madras) = 11·20 kilograms
1 candy = 223·94 kilograms
1 ounce = 28·35 grams
1 pound = 453·59 grams
1 hundredweight = 50·80 kilograms
1 ton = 1016·05 kilograms

TEMPERATURE :

T° Fahrenheit = 9/5 (T° Centigrade) + 32

METRIC WEIGHTS AND MEASURES

LENGTH:

10 millimetres = 1 centimetre
100 centimetres = 1 metre
1000 metres = 1 kilometre
1852 metres = 1 nautical mile (International)

AREA:

100 square millimetres = 1 square centimetre
10,000 square centimetres = 1 square metre or centiare
100 square metres = 1 are
100 ares = 1 hectare
100 hectares or 1,000,000 square metres = 1 square kilometre

VOLUME:

1,000,000 cubic centimetres = 1 cubic metre

CAPACITY:

1000 millilitres = 1 litre
1000 litres = 1 kilolitre

WEIGHTS:

1000 milligrams = 1 gram
1000 grams = 1 kilogram
100 kilograms = 1 quintal
1000 kilograms = 1 tonne
200 milligrams = 1 carat

ABBREVIATIONS FOR METRIC UNITS

(1) Decimal Multiples and Submultiples :

Prefix	Value in terms of Unit	Abbreviation
kilo	100	k
centi	0·01 (10^{-2})	c
milli	0·001 (10^{-3})	m
micro	0·000001 (10^{-6})	u

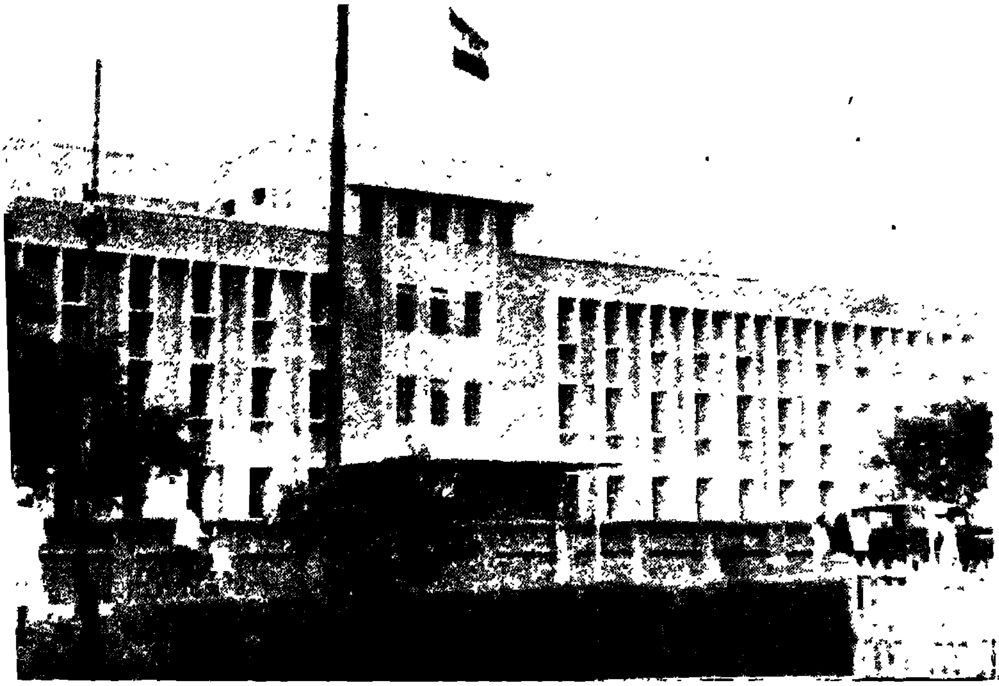
(2) Weights :

Denomination	Value	Abbreviation
tonne	1000 kg	t
quintal	100 kg	q
kilogram	1 kg	kg
gram	1 g	g
milligram	1 mg	mg
carat	200 mg	c
(3) Capacity :		
kilolitre	1000 l	kl
litre	1 l	l
millilitre	1 ml	ml

Denomination		Value	Abbreviation
(4) VOLUME :			
cubic centimetre	..	cm^3	cm^3
cubic millimetre	..	mm^3	mm^3
(5) LENGTH :			
kilometre	..	100m	km
metre	..	1 m	m
centimetre	..	1 cm	cm
millimetre	..	1 mm	mm
micron	..	1/1000 mm or 10^{-2} mm	um
(6) AREA :			
square kilometres	..	1,000,000 m^2	km^2
square metre	..	1 m^2	m^2
square centimetre	..	1 m^2	cm^2
square millimetre	..	1 mm^2	mm^2
(7) LAND MEASURE :			
are	.	100 m^2	a
hectare	..	100 a	ha
centiare	..	m^2	ca

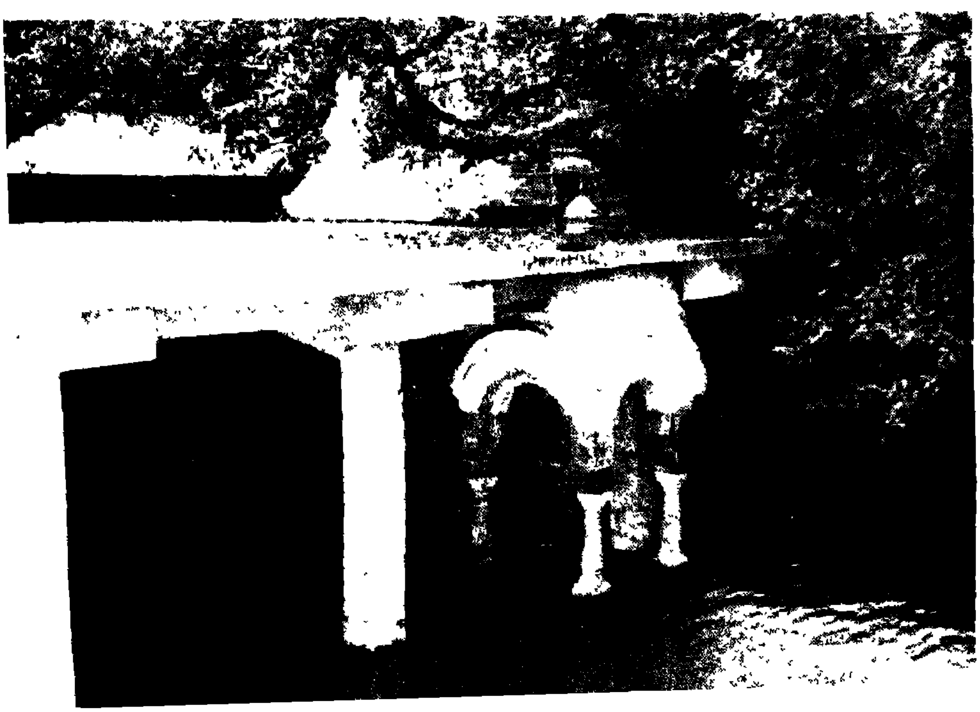


Chhatrapati Shivaji Maharaj Statue, Sangli



The Zilla Parishad Building Sangli

The temple of Dattatraya, Audumbar





The temple of Nagnath, Shirala

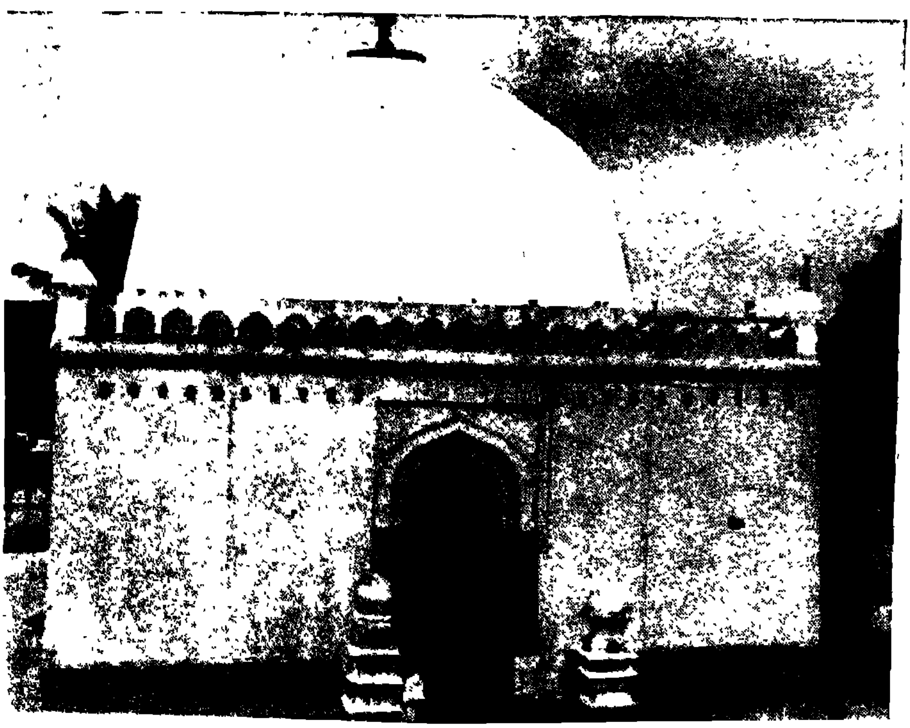
The temple of Mahankali, Kawathe-Mahankal





Willingdon College, Sangli

The Dargah, Miraj





The temple of Ganapati, Tasgaon

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